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Epic Chronology.—By E. Washburn Hopkins, Professor in Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

This essay is the third installment in the series announced in this Journal, vol. xxiii, p. 109. It was presented to the Society at its annual Easter meeting in 1902, but in the Journal of that year other publications took so much space that the editors thought it best to postpone this publication till the next year. In the interval I have received two works on the chronology of India touching directly on epic data. They are of very different character. The first is the Chronology of Ancient India, by Mr. Velandai Gopala Aiyer, B.A., in which are discussed the beginning of the Kali Yuga and the date of the Mahābhārata war. This is a very ingenious attempt to establish the date of the war as beginning Oct. 14, 1194 B.C., though "the epic was cast into its present form more than a thousand years after the date of the war" (p. 98). 1194 B.C. is reached by a series of eleven converging arguments, based on (1) the Vedānga Jvotisa, which points to the beginning of the Kali Yuga as approximately 1173 B.C.; (2) a statement of Garga, which points to the beginning of the Yuga as occurring a few years before 1165 B.C.; (3) classical historians, whose figures point to 1177-6 as the beginning of the Yuga; (4) The Malabar era, which indicates for the same event 1176 B.C.; (5) details of the epic which, if the Yuga began at the winter solstice preceding 1176 B.C., would indicate 1194 B.C. as the date of the war; (6) the Rajatarangini tradition, which indicates the dates of the war to be about 1190 B.C.; (7) a statement of Āryabhata to the effect that the Rsis were in Maghā in Kali 1910, i. e. 1192 B.C.; (8) the average duration of Hindu reigns, which also would indicate about 1193 B.C. as being the date of the war; (9) Garga's stanza cited in the Brhat Samhita, which leads (? cf. IA. viii, p.

¹ Compare also the syntactical paper evolved from the same series and published separately, AJP. vol. xxiv, p. 1 f.; and the note on the same subject at the end of this paper.

66)¹ to the same conclusion; (10) the first year of the Brhaspati cycle of sixty years, corresponding to the date as given by Garga, i. e. 1194–3 B.C.; (11) a stanza of the epic, fixing the day of the winter solstice occurring soon after the war, which, in connection with the elements of the Jyotisa, would indicate that the war took place in the latter part of 1194 B.C. The exact day is then deduced from other epic verses.

A glance at this array of arguments shows that they fall into two divisions, in one of which is sought the date of the Kali Yuga, and in the other the date of the epic as based on the date of the Yuga. Important as is the general contention, for the purpose of the present essay only the latter division comes into account, and in this division only the arguments numbered 5 These points will be briefly considered in and 11 above. their proper place in the course of this paper, but I have thus outlined Mr. Aiger's contention in advance, that their bearing might be understood. In regard to the whole theory I can see no objection to the conclusion that tradition points to the twelfth century as the date of the Bharata war; but it is possible that the details of the epic should be considered as based on tradition rather than as furnishing it, and that this tradition referred originally to a great Bharata war rather than to the special Pandu war with which the epic really has to do. the heroes of the present epic lived in the twelfth century B.C. seems to be historically impossible, if for no other reason at least for this, that the Pandus as such are unknown till long afterwards.

Of a very different sort is the symbolic interpretation of epic epochs and eras deduced from a general theory of Hittite and Akkadian supremacy in pre-historic times by J. F. Hewitt in his History and Chronology of the Myth-making Age, which is the second work referred to above. A few examples will suffice to show the character of the "chronology" evolved out of a symbolic interpretation of the epic: A year of eleven months and another of seventeen months, divided into seven-day weeks, are discovered to be latent in the fact that the Kurus have eleven and the Pandus seven akṣāuhinīs (armies), inter-

¹ Compare the argument as reported in the Secretary's correspondence in the Proceedings for April 1903, at the end of the second half of this volume of the Journal.

preted as "monthly revolutions of the axle." The eldest Kuru was Durvodhana, who brayed like an ass at his birth, thus showing him to be the son of the divine (epoch-making) three-legged Duryodhana's car was drawn by mules, "thus showing him to belong to the race born from the union of the sun-horse and ass." The thirteen-month year was brought to India during the rule of Kansa. Kansa is the same as Hansa, the goosegod of the Ugro-Altaic Finns (Ugro is Sk. ugra); so Su-bhadrā means the Su-bird, Su is Akkadian-Egyptian Khu (mother-bird). The epic shows all the changes from the pole-star epoch to the solar epoch of reckoning. The year of seventeen months ended and the eighteen-month year began at the epic sacrifice of the (sun-)horse, 10,200 B.C., and the eighteen books of the epic symbolize the eighteen-month year (of twenty-day months), which was the outcome of the Pandus' victory. was the year which was taken from India to Mexico in the Bronze Age. The epic is an allegorical history of India from the Neolithic to the close of the Bronze Age and represents the period of the years of eleven, fifteen, thirteen, and seventeen months each. Pārthas (sons of Prthā) are Parthians. Despite the date of the horse-sacrifice at which he is present, Yudhisthira himself was born in May, 12,200 B.C. Here, as the learned author sorrowfully admits, "there is a difficulty" about the exact date! But that Karna is the "horned lunarsolar god of the three-year cycle," and that Gandhārī (from gan, 'land,' and dhari, 'wetter') is the goddess Dharti, the star Vega, in the constellation of the Vulture, now Lyra, which was the pole-star from 10,000 to 8,000 B.C., admits not even of an interrogation point.1 The reader will readily see why a modest study like mine can dispense with any discussion of such conclusions as these, interesting as they are. I turn now to a study of epic chronology based not on fancy but on facts.

NEGATIVE TIME; INDEFINITE PERIODS.

God, as Great Time, Mahākāla, a late-epic epithet of Śiva, and as All-time, is also Not-time, akālaś cā 'tikālaś ca duṣkālaḥ kāla eva ca, xii. 285. 143 (after akalaḥ kelikalaḥ kaliḥ; cf.

¹ Hewitt, op. cit., pp. 309 f., 327, 374, 426, 529, 561 f., 580, 587.

Māit. Up. vi. 15), or, otherwise, the destruction of time in the reabsorption of the universe, pratyāhāra; though elsewhere (loc. cit., Great Epic, p. 182) Time is the destroying Lord. with space, the word antara, interval, when in negative form, expresses negative time, "there was no interval," etc. The word itself is combined with "winking," in a colloquial form. Thus, nimesāntaramātrena, "in the measure of a wink's interval" (space of a wink), vii. 98. 37, etc. The wink is the twinkling of an eye (expressly), caksurnimesamātrena, xii. 321. 11: yāvad aksinimesāni, xiii. 100. 41; aksnor nimesamātrena, vii. 51. 17; and, as with us, it may be cut in half, though the latter phrase is rare, nimesārdhāt, "in half a wink," viii. 25. 13; madhyāhne vāi nimesārdham (tisthasi tvam divākara), "at noon (O sun, thou standest still) half a wink," xiii. 96. 6.1 More common than "half a wink" is muhūrtakam, which in colloquial language as diminutive of muhūrta (muhuḥ =mox) has no reference to hour but means a little time, tusnim āsīn muhūrtakam, R. vii. 13. 15, Gorr., but not in Bomb. ed.; Mbh. i. 133. 2, tistha tāvan muhūrtakam, "stop just a moment."

In xiv. 48. 2 and 3, a moment is expressed first by a breathing, $ucchv\bar{a}sam\bar{a}tram$, and then by a wink, $nimesam\bar{a}tram$, both being followed by api, as marking the shortest time (at death, $antak\bar{a}le$); in v. 79. 20, by lavasah ksanasas $c\bar{a}$ pi.

The indefinite non-technical nature of these terms shows itself in the exchange of nimesa with unmesamātrena, for example in xii. 313. 6; and in the phrase muhūrtam iva, "momentarily," compared with muhūrtam sahyatām, "a short time," ib. 319. 9. The muhūrta in iii. 297. 7 appears with velā, period of time, as well as kṣana, another indefinite word for moment. The eighth muhūrta, noon, kutapa, is called abhijit and is mentioned by this name in R. Gorr. vi. 112. 70; but the corresponding passage in Mbh., iii. 291. 66, has only the day and asterism.

¹ Compare Vas. xi. 36: divasasyā 'sṭame bhāge mandībhavati bhāskaraḥ, sa kālaḥ kutapo nāma (see the next note). So (epic) vii. 99. 1, where the sun "goes slow as it turns in its course (at midday) to the west."

² In xiii. 64. 27 abhijita (yoga) is mentioned as the twentieth lunar asterism; the same word occurring in i. 123. 6 in the other sense of abhijit, the eighth (noon) hour: āindre candrasamāyukte muhūrte

The flight of an arrow also measures a short indefinite period of time (as the stick-cast measures space). Thus in xii. 296. 32: iṣuprapātamātram hi sparśayoge ratih smṛtā, "sensual pleasure is said to be (short-lived as) the measure of an arrow's flight"; ib. 321. 11, laghvastragatigāminī, "going the pace of a light arrow", i. e. in a moment; ib. 328. 30, yathā bāṇam guṇacyutam (āyāntam), (swift) "as a cord-sped arrow."

But as the indefinite sense of nimeṣa is lost in the formal timetable, so with other small divisions. In v. 109. 4, as typical divisions are named the truṭi and lava; the former being joined with kalā, portion, kṣaṇa, glance, and nimeṣa, wink, as "hairs of Time," in xii. 322. 25. Of these, kṣaṇa, tetymologically meaning a "look" or "glance," is, like nimeṣa, a moment, and so a moment of leisure (kṣaṇin, "at leisure," ii. 13. 45), whence comes a name for the giver of leisure, Night, kṣaṇadā, a late word, found in viii. 1. 8. Characteristic of the later didactic epic is the fact that it uses the ending rātra as an independent word, trīṇy rātrāṇy upoṣitvā tena pāpād vimucyate, in the jargon of this period, xiii. 136. 11.

Time-periods casually mentioned or enumerated in various passages of Śānti, xii. 137. 21; 227. 97 (repeating, as a section, 224) and also xii. 166. 14, do not present the ordered progression of the time-table, but juxtapose kāṣṭhā, kalā, muhūrta, divā, rāṭri, lava (before month, half month, season, aeon, year); or ahorāṭra, month, kṣaṇa, kāṣṭhā, lava, kalā (all acc., followed by sampīdayati yaḥ kālo vṛddhim vārdhuṣiko yaṭhā, "Time adds up days etc. as a usurer adds up his increase," 227. 97); or, in the order of creation, years, seasons, months, half months, lavas and kṣaṇas. In ii. 11. 37 (also late), divā is nom., as above.

The lava is a bit (saktuprasthalava, xiv. 90. 115), or minute "cut" of time, corresponding loosely to our minute in ordinary speech. God is praised as all time in i. 25. 14,

^{&#}x27;bhijite 'ṣṭame, divā madhyagate sūrye tithāu pūrņe 'tipūjite. Here āindra is the asterism Jyeṣṭhā and madhyagate sūrye is "at midday." Compare xii. 326.28: madhyamgatam ivā 'dityam, "like the midday sun" (metrically altered).

¹ So too the compound of this word, $abh\bar{\imath}ksnam$, every moment, too much, i. 78. 9; 100. 60; xii. 86. 29 $(bhr\hat{\imath}am v\bar{a})$. Compare anvaksam in Yāj. iii. 21, for the adverbial use in ksanena, "in a glance" (moment).

tvam muhūrtas tithis tvam ca tvam lavas tvam punah kṣaṇaḥ śuklas tvam bahulas tvam ca kalā kāsthā trutis tathā.

where bahula is a poetical equivalent of the dark half of the month, and truti is a fractional bit of time. The $muh\bar{u}rta$, in ordinary language a moment, in the formal time-table of the epic is an hour of forty-eight minutes. "They say that in the evening, pūrvarātra, the twilight hour, muhūrta, except for eighty lavas, is devoted to demons, the remainder, sesam anyat,1 to men," i. 170. 8-9. Another passage states that "after midnight" is the time when demons roam about: rātrāu niśīthe tv abhīle gate 'rdhasamaye, nrpa, pracāre purusādānām raksasām ghorakarmanām, iii. 11. 4. The former passage is to be compared with i. 154. 22, which says that the whole twilight, samdhyā, is rāudra muhūrta. Besides the rāudra, after sunset, muhūrte ramyadārune, iii. 1. 45 (both "fair and horrible"), the noon hour, abhijit (kutapa), above, and the brāhma mu $h\bar{u}rta$, the hour before sunrise, are mentioned, xiii. 104, 16 (= apararātresu, "at the end of the night," ii. 5. 29).

Little can be learned of the relative length of these periods as mentioned generally in the epic. They appear to be designations of short times as indefinite as twinkling and moment. Nor does the order in which they are mentioned in other places help in this matter, for sometimes one and sometimes another precedes. In xiii. 14. 185, the order is day, half day, muhurta, ksana, lava; and ib. 395, naksatrāni, grahāh, māsārdhamāsā rtavo rātrih samvatsarāh kṣanāh, muhūrtāś ca nimesāś ca tathāi 'va yugaparyayāh. The "year, season, half month, day and night, ahorātra, kalā, kāsthā, mātrā, muhūrta, lava, kṣana," make the list of xiii. 159. 32, which brings in the $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$, mora. This is found also in xiii. 17. 141 f., where the list is season, year, month, half month, paksa (Siva as "number-effecting," samkhyāsamāpanah, is explained by N. as effecting samkrānti and the new and full moon days), kalā, kāsthā, lava, mātrā, muhūrta, day, night, kṣana.

Besides being an astronomical period or course (of the sun), as in xii. 51. 15, the $k\bar{a}sth\bar{a}$ (copied from Katha Upanişad, iii. 3,

¹ Compare (tad)ahahśesam, xiii. 19. 101; 20. 9.

² Compare xii. 285. 128, where also meghakāla is mentioned (samvarta-kabalāhakah) and the yugāvarta, 144-152 (see below).

sā kāsthā sā parā gatih) is found in a non-technical sense in xiii. 16.57, iyam sā paramā kāsthā iyam sā paramā kalā...iyam sā paramā gatih. The Upanisads otherwise, it may be remarked, have the list, day, night, month, year, kalā muhūrtāh kāsthāś ca, but not till Mahānār. i. 8.

DEFINITE DIVISIONS.

Nevertheless, the pseudo-epic has its regulated time-table, xii. 232. 12 f. It is in a lone tristubh stanza, which has been introduced into the poem at a period later than Manu, whose general scheme is followed, but with this important difference, that the epic agrees in detail with the later Puranic view rather than with Manu; excelling the latter also in exactitude. It is as follows (sc. ganayet, "one may reckon"):

15	nimes as	make	one	$k\bar{a}$ ș t $h\bar{a}$
3 0	$kar{a}$ st $har{a}s$. "	"	$kal\bar{a}$
$30\frac{1}{10}$	$kal\bar{a}s$	"	"	$muh\bar{u}rta$
30	$muh\bar{u}rtas$	"	"	day and night
30	days and nights	"	"	month
12	months	"	"	year (of two semesters, ayane).

Manu's account, i. 64, differs from this in ascribing to the $k\bar{a}sth\bar{a}$ eighteen nimesas, instead of the epic and Puranic (VP. i. 3. 7) fifteen; nor does the law-book add to the thirty $kal\bar{a}s$ that make a $muh\bar{u}rta$ the epic's one tenth: trinsatkalas $c\bar{a}$ 'pi bhaven $muh\bar{u}rto$ $bh\bar{a}gah$ $kal\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ dasamas ca yah $sy\bar{a}t$.

According to this table, the *nimesa* is about one-fifth of a second; the $k\bar{a}sth\bar{a}$, about three seconds; the $kal\bar{a}$, about a minute and a half; and the $muh\bar{u}rta$, just forty-eight minutes. On $kal\bar{a}$ as a fraction, see this Journal, xxiii, p. 135. For a Brāhmana calculation of time-divisions, see ŚB. xii. 3. 2. 1–5.

¹ But it differs from that later division (not recognized at all in the epic) by which the Hindu hours and minutes are exactly inverted as compared with ours, that is (instead of a day of twenty-four hours of sixty minutes each) a day of sixty hours, nāḍīs, ghaṭikās, of twenty-four minutes each (ahorātraḥ ṣaṣṭighaṭikābhiḥ, N. to ii. 11. 38).

² This Brāhmaṇa recognizes half-months of fifteen days, twelve and thirteen months; three, five, six, and seven seasons, i. 3. 5. 8 f.; ii. 2. 3.26 f., etc. The table (referred to above) in the twelfth book (cf. x. 4. 3. 8) has the muhūrta as above, one thirtieth of a day; and the nimesa; but this is cal-

But, before proceeding with the greater divisions of time added to the table, it will be necessary to take up in more detail the last three divisions of the scheme already given.

DAY AND NIGHT.

Tacitus says of the Germans' view, nox ducere diem videtur. The Polynesians and New Zealanders to-day always count by nights, and the Babylonians originally made the whole day begin with the evening. According to the Vedic views represented by the Brāhmana period, AB. viii. 15. 2; SB. ii. 4. 2. 3; x. 6. 4. 1, and by MS. i. 15. 12, it is not quite certain that night was the norm of time. It is true that night generally precedes when days and nights are mentioned together, but on the other hand, in contrast to space, dvāvah, time is reckoned as "days" in RV. iii. 32. 9, "nor days, nor months, nor years" (harvests). Yet since we find also "nights and years," iv. 16. 19, and this view prevails, it may, perhaps, be regarded as the more primitive Arvan norm of short times. It is the Avestan method of measuring, and Dr. Bolling has lately shown that in Homer also the day is reckoned from sunset to sunset.2 How long such a method may continue under favoring circumstances was well known a few years ago to the boys of New England, whose weekly holiday ceased sharply as the Sabbath began, at sundown on Saturday!

In the great Hindu epic, an inheritance of stereotyped formulas somewhat affects precedence in the phraseology of the poets, who use ahorātra, divārātra, but also rātryahanī. Generally speaking, night is the favorite word in compounds such as trirātra, saptarātra, daśarātra; but the alternate forms are used as well, ekāha, saptadina, etc., and the same passage may give precedence to both words, as, for example, in xii. 124. 16, ekarātrena, tryahena, saptarātrena, pṛthivīm pratipedire. "Several days" is saptā 'py ahāni, i. 92. 15, and niśāniśam and

culated otherwise, as a subdivision of kṣipras, etarhis, idānis, and breathings (=nimesas), arranged in multiples of fifteen. Here the year has three, five, six, or seven (Vedic) seasons; twelve or thirteen months; three hundred and sixty days; ten thousand eight hundred muhūrtas; etc. On the sixty-hour division in the Rig Veda, see Zimmer, AIL., p. 363, and Ludwig's note to RV. 1. 123. 8.

¹ Cf. Zimmer, op. cit., p. 360 f.

² AJP. xxiii, p. 428 f.

divānišam are used indifferently. So in other phrases, sūryā-gninā rātridivendhanena, "with the sun as fire, night and day as kindling-wood," xii. 322. 92; rātrāv ahani samdhyāsu, "night, day, twilights," xiii. 115. 28; prabhāte ca sāyam ca, "morn and eve," iii. 305. 10; sāyam prātaś ca, "eve and morn," iii. 200. 83; xiii. 78. 9; āhnikam cāi 'va nāiśam ca duḥkham, "daily and nightly sorrow," v. 110. 14; avasans tatra saptarātram, aṣṭame 'hani samprāpte, "they stayed there a sennight, on the arrival of the eighth day," iii. 158. 22 f.; aṣṭā-daśāha, trayovinśatirātra, aṣṭāvinśatirātra, xv. 10. 30; xii. 46. 14; iv. 36. 3, respectively.

But it is formally stated in xiv. 44. 2, that, as the bright fortnight of the moon precedes the dark fortnight, so day precedes night:

ahah pūrvam tato rātrir māsāh śuklādayah smṛtāh śravanādīni rkṣāni rtavah śiśirādayah,

"the day comes first, then the night; the months begin with the bright fortnight; the asterisms begin with Śravaṇa; the seasons begin with (the cool time) Śiśira." Moreover, śvaħ, to-morrow, always in practice refers to a day that begins in the morning, not at sunset, and "half the day" is measured from the sunrise. On the other hand, it is formally stated in xiv. 44. 18, that days end at sundown, ahāny astamayāntāni, and night ends at sunrise, udayāntā ca śarvarī (as "joy ends in sorrow and sorrow ends in joy"); but here the "day" is the bright part of the whole time. Light ends in darkness as darkness ends in light, is the whole meaning; probably without thought of defining the (following) day as beginning with evening.

Besides the restriction of the border-period, $vel\bar{a}$, of the twilights, $p\bar{u}rv\bar{a}$ and $pa\acute{s}cim\bar{a}$, day and night are divided into fore,

¹ But velā is a general hour; sarvāsu velāsu, "at all hours," iii. 305. 3 (paścimā velā, iii. 65. 5). 'At dawn' is śarvaryām (or another word for night) prabhātāyām, vyuṣṭitāyām, vyatītāyām; or prabhāte, prage, vimale, uṣasi, uṣasya- (uṣasyoḍhā bhārateyaś ca, xiii. 76. 18). On śvo-bhūte, etc., see the last paper in this series, Journal, xxiii, p. 351. In the formal definition of the BS. xlvii. 21, the samdhyā is from half-sunset (when the sun is half under) till the stars become visible (not yet bright), and from their fading till half-sunrise: ardhāstamayāt samdhyā, vyak-tībhūtā na tārakā yāvat: tejahparihānimukhād, bhānor ardhodayam yāvat. See below on the correlation of this division of the day with the corresponding century-samdhyā in the scheme of ages.

mid, and after parts, $p\bar{u}rv\bar{a}hna$, $madhy\bar{a}hna$ (madhyamdina), $apar\bar{a}hna$; $p\bar{u}rvar\bar{a}tra$, etc., the only measured period being the $samdhy\bar{a}s$, twilights (of one hour and twelve minutes, as reckoned later). Compare viii. 91. 51; xii. 207. 29; and xii. 224. 53 f.:

rtūn māsārdhamāsāns ca divasāns ca kṣaṇāns tathā pūrvāhnam aparāhṇam ca madhyāhnam api cā 'pare muhūrtam api cāi 'vā 'hur ekam santam anekadhā tam kālam iti jānīhi yasya sarvam idam vase,

where Time and Fate, bhavitavyam, set at naught the doctrine of sin working out in a new birth (ib. 32, parallels, Great Epic, p. In iii. 65. 6; xii. 304. 3, etc., ardharātra is midnight (also nisītha) instead of madhyarātra, as used in the epic, xv. 5. 34, where, after prātar, pradosa, aparātra have been mentioned, the king is told to have his vihāra at midnight and midday, madhyarātre, madhyāhne. Manu, vii. 151 (in the same connection) uses ardharātra.1 Evening has more names than any other division of the day, of which sāyam, sāyāhna, is most current, as in the phrase, common to both epics, yatra sāyamgrha, one whose house is where evening finds him, i. 13. 12, etc.: R. ii. 67. 23. The beginning of evening (when fire-flies are out, vii. 15. 18) is currently pradosa (niśāmukha); "late in the afternoon" is mahaty aparāhne, i. 190. 47. Compare ĀB. ii. 15. 8; Manu iv. 129, mahāniśi, and xii. 322. 73: śvahkāryam adya kurvīta ("do to-day to-morrow's duty") pūrvāhne cā 'parāhnikam ("do in the morning the work of the afternoon"). Compare SB. ii. 1. 3. 9, "put not off till to-morrow; for who knows man's morrow?"

The three watches of the night are alluded to in a stanza which speaks of one night of three watches, $triy\bar{a}m\bar{a}\ rajan\bar{\imath}$, as being so fearful as to seem like a thousand watches, $sahasray\bar{a}-mapratim\bar{a}$, vii. 184. 14. Vālmīki expresses the same idea, R. ii. 62. 17 (G. 63. 17), and his imitator, G. ii. 10. 17, $triy\bar{a}m\bar{a}\ r\bar{a}trih\ldots varsasatopam\bar{a}$ (omitted in the Bomb. ed. 13. 15); and it is found again in more modern form in the Mbh. viii. 1. 8,

¹ But a Yogin meditates in the fore-part, *pūrvarātre*, and sleeps in the middle of the night, *madhyarātre*, rising within an hour after this, xii. 326. 43. Compare xii. 229. 39.

duhkhena kṣanadā rājan jagāmā 'bdaśatopamā.'

The last watch of the night includes the *muhūrta* of Brahman (or Prājāpatya, as in Vas. xii. 47), alluded to above.

The formal rule for the king is that he shall sleep two watches and rise in the third $y\bar{a}ma$, ii. 5. 85. In xii. 53. 1, "he woke half a watch before day" is expressed by

yāmamātrārdhaśeṣāyām yāminyām pratyabudhyata,

where $y\bar{a}ma$ gives the name to $y\bar{a}min\bar{\imath}$, night. A corresponding division of the day is apparently alluded to in xiv. 39. 18,

ahas tridhā tu vijneyam tridhā rātrir vidhīyate,

though years and conjunctions of seasons also, varsāni, samdhayah, are here made three-fold, by virtue of the all-pervading quass. The natural three-fold division of the day, morn. or sunrise, sūryadarśana, noon, kutapa, and evening, of many names, is implied in the conventional use of a ritualistic formula; so that we find not only trivelam, "thrice daily," but also saptatrisavanam snātvā, xiii. 136. 18, "bathing three times a day for a week." Sunrise gives a number of expressions indicating that the time for man to be up is already passed when the sun is up: utsūryaśāyin, abhyuditaśāyin (like prageśaya, prageniśa), used of lazy people, opposed to early risers, kalyam utthāya, kalyotthāna, prātar utthāya, etc., as in xiii. 130. 9; 146. 48; xv. 11. 11. The word sun is not necessary. Thus, "at or before sunrise" is simply udaye or udite 'nudite vā 'pi, xii. 60. 49. An hour after sunrise is muhūrtodita āditye, i. 126. 12. There is probably no sharp distinction between the periods loosely indicated by "brightness." Thus prabhāte is usually the first dawn (as in niśi prabhātāyām, "when night grows light"), but in i. 21. 1 we find tato rajanyāu vyustāyām prabhāte 'bhyudite ravāu "when day had dawned.

¹ Cf. iii. 164. 13 (grief made every night and day seem like a year). Conversely, in iii. 176. 5, four years of joy pass "like one night."

⁹ I have noticed in the epic no "fourth watch," such as is found in the classical period, e. g. in the BS. xxx. 3 f., and Harşacarita, to mark the time before dawn. Thus in Harşacar. 166, the fourth watch, before dawn: and in 228, at the end of the third watch, eight strokes mark the number of leagues in the day's march. The modern Hindus divide the day also into watches, pahars, of three hours each.

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and morning had come, and the sun had risen." The sun "sets" is usually expressed by "goes home," astam upāiti savitā (at sunset, astam gacchati bhāskare; just after sunset, sūrye 'stam ite sati, "being gone," ix. 29. 64 and 87; the sun sets twice on this day!), but this is sometimes filled out with the word hill, sūryo hy astam abhyagamad girim, i. 24. 10.

Of short combination of days, saptarātra, sennight, is colloquial, interchanging with saptāsta divasāh, seven or eight days, the former perhaps more common: saptarātrena mṛtyu-bhāk, "he will die within a week," xii. 318. 13 (amongst the aristāni, "death-signs"), etc. But ten days also make a group and three and its multiples are more common in the ritual, tri-rātra, tryaha, saṇrātra, dvādaśarātra, periods of three, six, and twelve days. The fortnight, ardhamāsa, māsārdha, pakṣa, is not regarded as a group of days but as half a moon, or the one wing, division, of a month, pūrva and apara, xiii. 87. 19= Manu iii. 278.

In accordance with a "Veda-word" (cf. SB. xii. 2. 2. 23) there is a formal equation of the year with a day and night in iii. 52. 23:

ahorātram mahārāja tulyam samvatsarena ha,

which may be compared with the ritualistic substitution of a month for a year, ib. 35. 33.3

MONTHS AND SEASONS.

The Months: Although the month of thirty days is Vedic, yet, to judge by colloquial epic language, the month was a moon's length, twenty-seven to twenty-eight days. This is implied in the colloquial expressions just referred to, which, like our week of seven to eight days, give natural halves of a-half-moon period.

¹ So in Sūtras, when "the sun is over the trees," adhivrkṣasūryam adhvānam na pratipadyate, is either noon or late afternoon, Vas. xii. 43; Gāut. v. 40.

² Compare the phrases, sūryāstamanavelā (astamana=astamayana); astam yāte (or prāpte) divākare (or dinakare). Before the evening twilight comes on is expressed by anāgatāyam samdhyāyām paścimā-yām. The nooning of the sun is expressed by madhyadešagate ravāu (after prāpte cā 'hnikakāle tu'), xii. 346. 14 (in 18 pitarah is accusative); also by the sun's turning astašikharam prati, vii. 99. 1

³ Compare Mahānār. Up. xxv. 1, ye ahorātre te daršapūrņamāsāu.

But the regular ascription of "ten months" to the period of pregnancy (c. 280 days) sets the matter beyond doubt, as otherwise we should have an extraordinary duration (300 days) assumed as the normal period. Apart from cases of diabolic birth, pregnancy of three years, i. 74, or longer, and divine or devilish performances of a similar sort, as when "demons conceive and instantly give birth," birth is usually said to follow in ten months (cf. Ch. Up. v. 9. 1), garbhān daśa māsān bibhrati, iii. 134, 17; xii. 7. 14; iii. 128. 7; 132. 14; 205. 10; xii. 332. 18, etc. So RV. x. 184. 3; AB. vii. 13. 9, daśame māsi, in the course of the tenth month.2 But as the solar month becomes popular we find in the Sulabhā-Janaka episode, inserted in xii. 321, that the period of pregnancy is set at the end of the ninth month, sampūrne navame māsi jātah, śl. 117. So in the introduction to the poem, i. 63. 61, Vyāsa's mother is ready to be born after nine months, as soon as the tenth month arrives, māsi dašame prāpte; and in the law-book of Yājñavālkya, iii. 83, birth is said to take place "in the ninth or tenth month." Also in iv. 36. 3, "twenty-eight nights or a month to its end" (was the fight) seems to imply a month of thirty days; while in xii. 232. 13 a "month" is formally declared to be of this length, māsah smrto rātryahanī ca trinsat. To distinguish the. two kinds of months we find Māgha described as sāumya, lunar, in xiii. 168, 28. Compare, however, the sense of agreeable or moonlighted in v. 142, 16-17: sāumyo (N. candrikayā abhirāmah; this is said a week before the new moon) 'yam vartate māsah suprāpayavasendhanah . . alpamaksikah, nispankah, nā 'tyusnasisirah. As the solar month, really civil month, of thirty days was thus reckoned from remotest antiquity, it is a question of locality or popularity only. In many cases a "month," according to long-inherited use and metaphors (below) was thirty days; in other cases, however, it was a moon, not quite twenty-eight days, though reckoned as full twenty-eight.

¹ So a devil's baby becomes full-grown at once: sadyo hi garbhān rākṣasyo labhante prasavanti ca (bālo 'pi yāuvanam prāptaḥ), i. 155. 35 f.

² Cf. daśamāsya, daśa māsān, RV. v. 78. 9; ŚB. iv. 5. 2. 4. But ŚB. xi. 1. 6. 2, samvatsara eva strī vā gāur vā vadavā vā vijāyate ("in the course of a year," as in ŚB. iii. 2. 1. 27, samvatsare jāyamānah), gives only the outer limit, this side of which birth takes place, "in (-side of) a year." Cf. ib. xi. 5. 4. 6.

A stanza cited above, p. 15, shows that the month does not begin with the full-moon, as was sometimes the case, but with the bright fortnight, māṣāḥ śuklādayaḥ. The moon, it is said, is born at the beginning of the bright fortnight (by means of drinking the "six essences" of Varuṇa), jāyate taruṇaḥ somaḥ śuklasyā 'dāu tamisrahā, v. 110. 4. The bright half ends with the full moon, śuklātyaye pāurṇamāsyām, i. 76. 61. The full-moon day is par excellence the month-day, e. g. kārtikī is the full-moon (night) of Kārtika. "Fair as the full-moon," pāurṇamāsyām ive 'nduḥ, i. 76. 61, etc., is an epic commonplace; "ugly as the moon on the fourteenth day of the dark fortnight," draṣṭuṁ na naḥ prītikaraḥ śaśī 'va kṛṣṇasya pakṣasya caturdaśāhe, xi. 21. 13, refers to a gnawed body, diminished and ghastly.

Only traces remain of Vedic phraseology in naming the seasons (months): supuspitavane kāle kadācin madhumādhave (=Cāitra-Vāišākha) spring-time, i. 125. 2; šucišukrāgama, the time of heat, šucišukrāgame kāle šusyet toyam ivā 'lpakam, ii. 47. 24; "the sun absorbs water with his fierce heat when intervening between Šuci and Šukra," ugrarašmih šucišukramadhyagah, viii. 79. 78. But this is also the tempest-time (when the monsoon first blows), jaāghāvāto vavāu cā 'sya šucišukrāgame yathā, i. 151. 2 (jyeṣṭhāṣāḍhayoḥ samaye, N.). The following rain-months, Nabhas and Nabhasya, are alluded to in H. ii. 95. 1; but there is no mention of the corresponding Vedic terms for autumn, Ūrja and Iṣa; of those for winter, Saha and Sahasya; or of those for cool-time, šāiširāu, called Tapa(s), Tapasya (yad etayor baliṣṭham śyāyati) in ŚB. iv. 3. 1. 19; viii. 7. 1. 5.

It is usually in conventional passages that the "four-month" season is noticed: darśe ca pāurnamāse ca cāturmāsye punah

¹ ŚB. vi. 2. 2. 18 and Kāuś.B.v.1, etc., give the full moon of Phālguna as the beginning of the spring and of the year (pāuṇamāsī ha vāva prathamā vyuvāsa).

² Compare Yāj. i. 80, sustha indāu, "when the moon is full" (?), one should "avoid Maghā and Mūla in connubial intercourse."

 $^{^3}$ Cf. SB. iv. 3. 1. 14, Madhu and Mādhava are the $v\bar{a}santik\bar{a}u$ months of growth; ib. 15, Sukra and Suci are the $gr\bar{a}i\bar{s}m\bar{a}u$ months of strongest heat.

⁴ SB. loc. cit. 16, vārşikāu.

punah, (offered horse-sacrifices) "on the new and full-moon and on the thirds of the year," xii. 29. 114. But it is once given as the proper term for wages which are to be paid cāturmāsyāvaram, "at least every four months," ii. 5. 118. The seasons thus divided are summer, rains, and winter, or spring, rains, autumn, according to ŚB. xii. 8. 2. 33; vii. 2. 4. 26, respectively (which must embrace the remaining time). The full-moon of Phālguna is the regular beginning of the Cāturmāsya. See also below.

According to xiii. 168. 6 and 28, the winter solstice occurs near the beginning of the bright half of the month of Māgha. The saint who dies here is anxious to pass away at an auspicious period, i. e. in the northern course of the sun and the bright half of the month. He asserts in this passage that the proper conditions are fulfilled. The solstice has already taken place (xii. 47. 3) and he says: "The lunar month Māgha has arrived, Yudhisthira, and the bright fortnight must be two-thirds (or a quarter) past:"

māgho 'yain samanuprāpto māsah sāumyo Yudhisthira tribhāgaśeṣah pakṣo 'yam śuklo bhavitum arhati.

The doubtful meaning of tribhāga (1/3 as well as 3/4) renders exactness of translation impossible. The natural agreement of the adjective would lead to the meaning given by Mr. Aiver, that the solstice occurred "on the expiry of the fourth part of the bright fortnight in the month of Magha, that is, on the fourth or the fifth day after new-moon" (op. cit., p. 81). But there is no certainty that tribhāgaśesah does not refer to the word month.1 Nīlakantha here says the day is the eighth of the Mr. Aiver takes the fifth lunar day after new moon as the real meaning (referring to N. on vi. 17. 2). Then, according to the Vedanga, he argues that this would imply that the solstice was the fourth of the five winter-solstices of a five-year cycle (op. cit., p. 84), and uniting this with the assumed date of the Kali Yuga in 1177 B.C., he arrives at 1194-3 as the date of the war according to the epic itself. It is at least unfortunate that a stanza so important for this result should not be less ambiguous, for if tribhāgaśesah refers to māsah the whole argument is invalidated.

 $^{^{1}}$ Mr. Aiyer's metrical objection ($loc.\ cit.$) is inconclusive, as he has admitted by letter.

Though Māgha is the solstice-month, neither this nor Cāitra nor Kārtika is the first month, but Mārgaśīrṣa. This, as is implied in the Gītā, stands in the same relation to the months as spring stands to the seasons. In connection with the phrase $\bar{a}grah\bar{a}yana$, this, like the epic list, points to Mārgaśīrṣa not as the best but as the formal first month (compare $\bar{a}grah\bar{a}yan\bar{\imath} = m\bar{a}rgaśīrṣ\bar{\imath}$, Vas. xi. 43). The list is given in xiii. 106. 17 f. and is as follows (with the alternate names supplied from another list at xiii. 109. 3 f.).

Mārgasīrṣa (November-December), Pāuṣa, Māgha, Bhagadāivata or Phālguna, Cāitra, Vāisākha, Jyeṣṭhāmūla or Jyāiṣṭha (jyeṣṭha, sic), Āṣāḍha, Śrāvaṇa, Proṣṭha- or Bhādra-pada, Āśvayuja or Āśvina, Kārtika.

If, as the epic says, the month begins with the new moon, Magha would be from the new moon of December to the new moon of January. But this list probably implies that (as usual) Magha is counted from the full moon in January and so on, Mārgaśīrsa being from the full moon of November. Two passages in Virāta show that when the "seventh day" and "eighth day" are mentioned they refer to the days after the full moon. In iv. 47. 10-11, these days are cited merely as saptamyām aparāhne and astamyām ādityasyo 'dayam prati, "on the afternoon of the seventh and at sunrise on the eighth," which days in 30, 26-27 are referred to as krsnapaksasya saptamīm and apare divase, "on the seventh of the dark half and on the next day." This is borne out by the fact that the psuedo-epic (like the law) gives as marching-months Mārgaśīrsa, Phālguna, or Caitra, which would be November, February, March (cf. Manu vii. 182, Vishnu, iii. 40), or more particularly the full moon of these months, Caitrī, Mārgaśīrsī; and in fact Kārtika, Kāumuda, overlaps autumn and winter, v. 83. 7:

Kāumude māsi Revatyām śaradante himāgame,

"on the arrival of cold, at the end of autumn, under the star Revatī, in the lotus-month;" xiii. 115. 76:

¹ Kṛṣṇa says (10. 35): māsānām mārgašīrṣo 'ham ṛtūnām kusumākaraḥ. On this passage and the application of āgrahāyaṇa, compare Tilak, The Orion, pp. 67 f. (Phālgunī, the first night of the year), 86 f., 153; Jacobi, Beiträge zur Kenntniss der vedischen Chronologie, p. 109.

² The object of this list is to show that Kṛṣṇa ought to be adored under a different name on the twelfth of each month.

purā mānsam na bhakṣitam śāradam kāumudam māsam,

"meat was not eaten of old during the autumnal month Kāu-muda."

There is, then, a certain discrepancy in the matter of the epic months. The data as to marching, etc., above, would indicate that they were the months of the law-books, as follows, reckoning from full moon to full moon: Mārgasīrsa, November—December; Pāusa, December—January; Māgha, January—February; Phālguna, February—March; Cāitra, March—April; Vāisākha, April—May; Jyāistha, May—June; Āṣāḍha, June—July; Śrāvaṇa, July—August; Bhādrapada, August—September; Āśvina, September—October; Kārtika, October—November. But this is incompatible with Māgha being well on its way by December 21st, as above.

The lunar day, tithi, masculine and feminine, gives rise to auspicious and inauspicious days, sutithi, dustithi (but sudina and durdina refer to the weather, e. g. i. 190. 46, durdine meghasamplute, "on a dull cloudy day"). The form is usually feminine, but tithāu pūrne, i. 123. 6. The asterism and muhūrta are usually mentioned with the lucky or unlucky day, as in ii. 25. 4; tithāv atha muhūrte ca nakṣatre cā 'bhipūjite; xii. 100. 25, tithinakṣatrapūjitah; xii. 180. 45, 46, uta jātāh sunakṣatre sutithāu sumuhūrtajāh, nakṣatreṣv āsureṣv anye dustithāu durmuhūrtajāh. Manu's derivation of atithi from anityam sthitah is found, with a varied reading, in xiii. 97. 19= M. iii. 102.

The holiest night is that of the full-moon of Kārtika, punyatamā rātrih parvasamdhāu sma śāradī kārtikī, iii. 182. 16. The thirteenth day is a very lucky day, praśastā, iii. 134. 20, but not when sun and moon are eclipsed, vi. 3. 28, 32. The last stanza refers to the ill-luck of having a new moon on the thirteenth lunation, instead of the fourteenth, fifteenth or six-

 $^{^1}$ In i. 209. 30, $k\bar{a}umud\bar{\imath}$ is either the moon or the full-moon night of this month :

akālakāumudīm cāi 'va cakratuh sārvakālikīm.

[&]quot;they made the moon untimely (rise) at all times" (or the night come, v. l. $sarvak\bar{a}min\bar{\imath}m$). According to the Suśruta, Mārgaśīrṣa is the second autumnal month.

teenth, and the ill-omen of the new moon on the thirteenth with a synchronous eclipse. But every unusual number anyway is ominous of evil. Thus headless trunks are especially portentous when they have many hands and feet, ix. 58. 56, and animals with four eyes and five feet, and women having four or five daughters at a birth are grouped together, as of very evil omen, vi. 3. 3 f. So the unusual day is the unlucky day apart from the eelipse:

caturdasīm pañcadasīm bhūtapūrvām ca sodasīm imām tu nā 'bhijāne 'ham amāvāsyām trayodasīm candrasūryāv ubhāu grastāu ekamāsīm trayodasīm.

It is added that an aparvani eclipse portends disaster. With this stanza, vi. 3. 32, compare xvi. 2. 18, 19:

evam pasyan Hṛṣīkesaḥ samprāptam kālaparyayam trayodasyām amāvāsyām tān dṛṣṭvā prābravīd idam caturdasī pañcadasī kṛte 'yam Rāhuṇā punaḥ prāpte vāi Bhārate yuddhe prāptā cā 'dya kṣayāya naḥ.

The "first day" of the month is generally given by the moon-day, but sometimes by the number, Kārtikasya tu māsasya prathame 'hani, ii. 23. 29. The days of the new and full moon, amāvāsyā, amāvāsī, and pāurṇamāsī, are also called darśa and pūrṇamāsa. The most prominent and auspicious days are those of the new and full moon, the thirteenth, and the eighth (end of a week), Sinīvālī, Anumatī, Kūhū and Rākā, the first part of the day of the new moon and of the full moon, and the latter part of the day of the new moon and of the full moon, respectively (ĀB. vii. 11), viii. 34. 32, etc. The eighty-seventh section of Anuśāsana gives the rules for Śrāddhas (compare Manu iii. 273–276) on each day of both fortnights, the fourteenth of each being bad. To live one hundred years, one must be chaste on the days of the new and full moon, and on the eighth and fourteenth of all lunar fortnights: amāvāsyām

¹ This has the epithet Śakradevatā, saptamāc cā 'pi divasād amāvāsyā bhaviṣyati samgrāmo yujyatām tasyām tām āhuḥ Śakradevatām, ''by the end of the week there will be a new moon; let the fight begin on that (new moon, for) they say that has Indra as its divinity," v. 142. 18. Aiyer, op. cit. p. 96, interprets as Jyeṣṭhā (as if yām stood for tām). Cf. āindrā (p. 32) and śakra-dāivata, BS. vii. 12.

pāurņamāsyām caturdasyām. . astamyām sarvapakṣāṇām, xiii. 104. 29; Manu iv. 128. A particularly favorable eighth day is known as kāmyāṣṭamī, for gifts and oblations, xiii. 71. 49; 76. 19; 132. 7, the last referring to that of the dark half of Kārtika:

Kārtike māsi cā 'śleṣā bahulasyā 'ṣṭāmī śivā tena nakṣatrayogena yo dadāti gudāudanam, etc.

Special gods have special days. Kṛṣṇa's day is the twelfth (above). Skanda's days are the bright half's fifth and sixth, iii. 228. 15; 229. 52 (śrījuṣṭaḥ pañcamīm Skandas tasmāc chrīpañcamī smṛtā.. ṣaṣṭhī mahātithiḥ). The Sun's day is the sixth or the seventh, saptamyām atha vā ṣaṣṭhyām bhaktyā pūjām karoti yaḥ, iii. 3. 64 (perhaps on account of the title Saptasapti, for saptāśva, ib. 63).

The name of the month is added in noun-form, $dv\bar{a}da\acute{s}y\bar{a}m$ $m\bar{a}gham\bar{a}se$ or $jy\bar{a}i\dot{s}ihe$ $m\bar{a}si$, etc., xiii. 109, passim, or the adjective form of the month is joined to the name of the day, $c\bar{a}itry\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}urnam\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$, for initiating the king at the beginning of the horse-sacrifice; $m\bar{a}gh\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}urnam\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$ after $dv\bar{a}da\acute{s}\bar{\imath}$ $m\bar{a}gham\bar{a}sik\bar{\imath}$, xiv. 72. 4; 85. 4–8; or the day is implied, $par\bar{a}m$ $c\bar{a}itr\bar{\imath}m$ $upasthit\bar{a}m$, ib. 76. 25 $(pari\ c\bar{a}itr\bar{\imath}m$, 81. 23).

The Seasons: These are six in number, e. g. iii. 134. 13. The group consists of Śiśira, cool-time, Vasanta (kusumākara), Easter-time, Grīṣma, heat-time, Varṣās, rains, Śarad, autumn, Hemanta, snow-time. For Grīṣma is found also Uṣṇāṇi, heats, as in i. 222. 14, uṣṇāṇi vartante, "the heated term is at hand." A favorite epic word for the hot spell is Nidāgha (Nidāghakāla, v. 26. 10) scorching-time:

meghāv ivā 'tapāpāye dhārābhiḥ, vii. 98. 14, with uṣṇaparyāye meghānām iva vāgurāh, ib. 32.

nidāghavārṣikāu māsāu lokam gharmānsubhir yathā (sc. ahatām Pāṇḍavam), vii. 30. 10 (v. l. C. 1331, gharmāmbubhir). So iii. 3. 49; vii. 146. 11; R. Gorr. v. 41. 25; and

¹ In xiv. 43. 8, arko 'dhipatir uṣṇānām jyotiṣām indur ucyate, "the sun is lord of hot (things); the moon, of stars," the heated term may be specially meant. In the next chapter the sun is called the beginning of light, ādityo jyotiṣām ādir ugnir bhūtādir ucyate, 44. 5.

nāidāgha rtuh, AV. ix. 5. 31, etc., all showing that Nidāgha is the heated term before the rains begin. The first rains are called Prāvṛṣ, whence the phrase of both epics, yathā prāvṛṣi toyadāh, vi. 81. 39; R. iii. 18. 23, etc., though there is no passage, I think, indicating that the whole rainy period was formally divided into two seasons, varṣās, śarad, hemanta, vasanta, grīṣma, prāvṛṣ, which division occurs first (as just cited) in the Suśruta (Thibaut, Grundriss, Astronomie, p. 11).

In the six-season division, the rains take four months and the remaining seasons, of which the first is Śiśira, must be divided between eight months. Compare caturo vārṣikān māsān, i. 62. 32, "through four rainy months;" and v. 35. 67:

astamāsena tat kuryād yena varsāh sukham vaset,

where the eight months as a group are opposed to "rains," as also in Manu, ix. 304 f.

Though the earlier literature makes Vasanta the first season, that of the epic may begin with its expressed choice, and the seasons may be arranged about as follows: Sisira, February; Vasanta, March-April; Grīsma, May till it rains; Varsās, June-September; Śarad, October till cold weather; Hemanta, c. November-January. Hemanta is the season when the shadow is shortest, muhūrtam sukham evāi 'tat tālacchāye 'va hāimanī, ii. 80. 50 (and elsewhere).2 On the other hand, the Aśoka blooms at the end of Hemanta, hemantante 'śoka iva raktastabakamanditah (babhāu Rāmaḥ), v. 179. 31. term, probably, is a general one, either ignoring or, according to locality, merging into Sisira.3 In the same way, Vasanta is an indefinite period, from the middle of February running through March and into April; as Grīsma includes part of June. The rains may last four months, but there often are seasons when the rains are not more than two or three months, from the middle of June to the middle of August or September, instead

¹ The spring-festival comes on the thirteenth of the first half of Cāitra.

² Compare (at vi. 17. 2) the stanza of the Bhārata-sāvitrī: hemante prathame māsi suklapakṣe trayodasīm pravṛttam Bhāratam yuddham nakṣatre Yamadāivate (under Bharaṇī).

³ So in Manu, iii. 281, "thrice in a year... in Hemanta, Grīsma, Varṣās," as the three general seasons, though six are known, ib. 217; also iv. 26 rtvante is at the end of the four-month season.

of the "four rainy months," and then Sarad begins earlier. The coming of the rains varies by almost a month, so there is quite a margin here as well as in respect to the other seasons, which are really meteorological divisions shifting from year to year like our dog-days and Indian summer. They are always numbered as six, rtavah sat, v. 11. 15; viii. 34. 47, etc., but they are not enumerated as a group. According to iii. 3. 6, when the sun first took pity on starving man it began its work in the "northern course." and then passed into the "southern course," or in other words the year of the sun begins at the winter solstice, which in the epic is the time when begins the "northern course of six months," sanmāsā uttarāyanam, Gītā, 8. 24, to reach which Bhīsma delayed his end, as explained above. The Gītā passage alone, however, may imply, as Mr. Tilak has suggested, through its collocation of fire, flame, day, bright half, and northern course, as opposed to smoke, night, dark half, and southern course, that the northern course was the fiery, flaming months, or in other words, that the year began not with the solstice but with the vernal equinox. This may well be the case, since the Gītā stanza is merely a recasting of a famous Vedic passage (Ch.U. iv. 15. 5, etc.).2 The other Gītā passage, cited above, agrees with the older Brāhmanas in making spring the first season, whereas the pseudo-epic stanza cited above, p. 15, makes Sisira the first season; a discrepancy consonant with the character of the heterogeneous epic.

A passage in Vana, 163. 34 f., says that the sun, after turning on his course, when desirous of making coolness, $\dot{s}i\dot{s}ir\bar{a}ni$, favors the southern district. Then the cool-time arrives, $\dot{s}ai-\dot{s}irah$ $k\bar{a}lah$ (when cattle suffer, vi. 118. 8). Then returning, nivrttah, he takes to himself the energy of all creatures, which

¹ Three, five, six, or seven in early texts, e. g. \$B. ii. 1. 1. 12–13, and above, p. 13, note 2.

² Compare Tilak, *The Orion*, p. 23 f. The northern course of the sun is the gods' abode, the Manes as opposed to the gods are as dark to light, SB. ii. 1. 3. 1 f. Here the gods are represented by the northern course, the bright half of the year (spring, summer, rains), the crescent (first half of) the moon, the day, and the forenoon, as opposed to the Manes, represented by autumn, winter, cool-time, etc., the gibbous moon, the night and the afternoon. It is added that spring is the priesthood, as the first (best) season and caste.

thereupon become sweaty, weary, and sleepy. Then, following a path incapable of being indicated, anirdesyam mārgam āvrtya, the sun emits rain. Here the "cool-time" marks the beginning of winter, as the time of fatigue indicates summer. Instead of bhajate one might expect tyajate, as tatah following seems to show that the immediate result is coolness. But the words may mean only that after the southern course has been completed the cool time comes; though the southern course appears to precede the cool time immediately, which would require the latter to begin with the early autumn instead of the solstice, and the former to begin with the equinox:

tathā tamisrahā devo mayūkhāir bhāvayan jagat mārgam etad asambādham ādityaḥ parivartate sisṛkṣuḥ śiśirāṇy eva dakṣiṇām bhajate diśam tatah sarvāni bhūtāni kālo 'bhyarchati śāiśirah.

The rainy season is described in iii. 182; it ends some time before the full moon of Kārtika (16). There is, I believe, no passage in the epic grouping the months, beginning with Māgha, in pairs according to the seasons, as they are both defined by native lexicographers and grouped in ĀB. iv. 26 (beginning with vāsantikāu māsāu); ŚB. iv. 3. 1. 14 f.; or as ib. viii. 3. 2. 5, dvāu hi māsāv rtuh, limits the season. At present the natives reckon three seasons of four months each, "hot, cold, and stormy," JASB., 1901, p. 57 of Part III.

THE ASTERISMS.

Though the "star-man," nākṣatra, xii. 76. 6, perhaps a mere fortune-teller, is a despicable kind of priest, the stars are the object of constant study and even the asterisms are frequently brought into the epic narrative, sometimes formally, as in the lists spoken of below, sometimes incidentally, as when a "Tīrtha of the Pleiades and Maghā" is mentioned, or when "Rohiṇī surrounded with stars," tārābhiḥ, serves the poet as a simile for a

¹ I am not quite sure of this, for the astrologer is also called a sāmvatsara and he is no better than a Sūdra, xiii. 135. 11, and yet this is the very title given to Garga, xii. 59. 111 (other references in my *Great Epic*, p. 15). The asterisms, though admitted into the ritual, are clearly little regarded in SB. ii. 1. 2. 19. Here, by the way, ib. 2, no asterisms have more than four stars except the Pleiades.

queen at court, ii. 58. 27. The latter star, Aldebaran, is the best-beloved wife of the Moon-god, and stirs up jealousy among the other asterisms, ix. 35. 47 f. Another story, reported below, attributes jealousy to Abhijit, "younger sister" of Rohini, and tells how the six Pleiades, with the Fire-god as the seventh, replace her, iii. 134. 13; ix. 44. 12, as six; "seven-headed with Agni as divinity," iii. 230. 11. The Pleiades are the asterism of the Sword as Justice, xii. 166. 82. But apart from the Pleiades and Aldebaran, there is little notice taken of the asterisms, except when the planets and asterisms give portents, till we come to the formal lists of the latter in the late epic tables. Apart from the asterisms and planets, however, the Seers, the Great Bear and Dhruva, the Pole star, are not infrequently lauded and described: A saint-star is located "midway between the Holy Seers (the Great Bear) and Dhruva, the son of Uttānapāda" (Puranic), xiii. 3. 15. These Seers rise and set in the royal North (diśām udīcī rājā, xiv. 43. 10) at Mount Meru, Mahā Meru, iii. 163. 15, round which go daily the sun and moon and other lights of heaven. Setting there, astam prāpya, the sun goes north, after the twilight time, samdhyām atikramya . . . udīcīm bhajate kāsthām disam (as phrased elsewhere, xiii. 168. 6, drstvā [Bhīsmah] nivrttam ādityam pravrttam co 'ttarāyanam); then eastward turning he goes on again. And even so, dividing the months, māsāu vibhajan kāle bahudhā parvasamdhişu, goes the moon with the asterisms, naksatrāih saha gacchati, and having gone about Meru goes again to Mount Mandara, ib. 27 f. Compare v. 111. 14, "Here (in the North) are the Seven Seers, Arundhatī, and Svāti, which rises here, and (the year) Pitāmaha "(as sacrifice).1

Since the asterisms are known by name even in the Rig Veda, i. 24. 9, Satam-bhisajah; x. (19. 1?) 85. 13, Maghā(?) and Arjunī; while the Atharva Veda, xix. 7, and other Vedic works presumably earlier, give lists of them, it may be assumed that, whatever the date of the epic, the poets were familiar with all the asterisms, and it is to be expected that the later epic will maintain its usual character by endorsing both lists, that of the twenty-seven

¹ atra te rṣayaḥ sapta devī cā 'rundhatī tathā, atra tiṣṭhati vāi svātir atrā 'syā udayaḥ smṛtaḥ, atra yajñaṁ samāsādya dhruvaṁ sthātā pitāmahaḥ, i. e. the year.

asterisms and that of the twenty-eight. Whether the asterisms were first counted as twenty-seven or as twenty-eight may still be doubtful (twenty-eight is more likely); but the constant later view was that they were twenty-seven, and this is the current epic view, as represented in the usual ascription of twenty-seven wives to Soma. They are nakṣatrayoginyaḥ, nakṣatrayoganiratāḥ, and are counted as seven and twenty, i. 66. 16–17; ix. 35. 45; xii. 207. 24; 343. 57, etc.

The twenty-seven asterisms are divided into nine-day weeks $(navar\bar{a}tra)$ by groups of three (of nine each, beginning with Aśvinī, Maghā, Mūla, respectively, according to the scholiast), and, according to this division, a grdhra, or evil heavenly body, $p\bar{a}pagraha$, has a different effect on the fortunes of men, if we may further trust this expansion on the part of the scholiast of B. vi. 3. 31,

trişu sarveşu nakşatranakşatreşu, viśāmpate, gṛdhraḥ sampatate śīrṣaṁ (!) janayan bhayam uttamam,

which might refer to a three-fold division of the year according to the seasons already mentioned.² The Rbhus, however, are mentioned merely as divinities of the gods, eternal and changeless under the aeonic changes, devadevāh sanātanāh, iii. 261. 19-22:

na kalpaparivarteșu parivartanti te tathā.

The twenty-eight asterisms are said to "enter the circle of the sun" in the West and then, on account of their association with the moon, to fall out of the sun again, after twenty-eight nights are past, v. 110. 15-16:

ataḥ prabhṛti sūryasya tiryag āvartate gatiḥ atra jyotīnṣi sarvāṇi viśanty ādityamaṇḍalam aṣṭāviṅśatirātraṁ ca cañkramya saha bhānunā niṣpatanti punaḥ sūryāt somasaṁyogayogataḥ.

Twenty-eight asterisms are implied at ix. 34. 6, where forty-two days pass from Puṣya to Śravaṇa (= 22 + 20, Puṣya being sixth and Śravaṇa twenty-first).

¹ But cf. TS. i. 7. 7. 2; SB. x. 5. 4. 5; Whitney, OLS. ii. p. 360 f., with citations

² C. 98 has trişu sarveşu pürveşu nakşatreşu... sīrşe. With B. cf. RV. x. 61. 10 f., on the Navagvas.

The full list of the asterisms, as developed at xiii. 64, is as follows. I supply the equivalent forms from other passages, chiefly in the same book (giving only epic data); sc. nakṣatram:

1, Krttikās, Krttikāyoga, āgneyam, vahnidāivatam; 2, Rohiņī, prājāpatyam, dhruvam; 3, Mrgaśiras, Mrgottama, somadāivatam; 4, Ārdrā; 5, Punarvasu, also dual, viii. 49. 28, required, where C. 2,328 has sg.; 6, Pusya,¹ Tiṣya; 7, Āśleṣā, sg. and pl.; 8, Maghā (N. pitryam), sg. and pl.; 9 and 10, Phalgunī, pūrvā, uttarā, uttarāviṣaya; sg., pl., dual,² bhagadāivatam; 11, Hasta, sāvitram; 12, Citrā (Mitra? see below); 13, Svāti, Svātī, Svātiyoga; 14, Viśākhā, sg., dual, pl.; 15, Anurādhā, sg. and pl., māitram; 16, Jyeṣthā, āindram; 17, Mūla; 18 and 19, Aṣādhā, pūrvā, uttarā; 20, Abhijit, Abhijita(-yoga); 21, Śravaṇa, sg. and pl.; 22, Dhaniṣthā, sg. and pl.; 23, Śatabhiṣā(-yoga), vāruṇam; 24 and 25, Proṣtha-, Bhadrapadā, Bhādrapada (-yoga), pūrvā, uttarā (-yoga); 26, Revatī; 27, Aśvinī, sg. and pl.; 28, Bharaṇī, sg. and pl.

Śravisthā, the older name of Dhanisthā, does not appear to be used. Abhijit is lacking in the alternate list (below). The addition of yoga is common, the asterism appearing either as a noun (above) or as an adjective, as, for example, in adya pāusyam yogam upāiti candramāḥ, "to-day the moon enters its Pusya-conjunction" (a suitable time for a wedding), i. 198. 5. In the same way, maghāviṣayagaḥ somaḥ, vi. 17. 2.

Like the nakṣatriyah prajāpatih, "whose hand is Hasta and head is Citrā," in TB. i. 5. 2. 2, is the identification made during the moon-rite, cāndravrata, at xiii. 110. 2 f., in which the worshipper identifies himself with the moon as anthropomorphized from the feet up in the asterisms. The month is Mārgaśīrṣa, and the moon's feet are Mūla; the knees and thighs,

¹ Instrumental asterism, with which, all the others locative. So in the list at xiii. 89, except for Hasta and Abhijit (means): hastena phalabhāg; śrāddham tv abhijitā kurvan bhiṣak siddhim avāpnuyāt, śl. 11.

² uttarābhyām phalgunībhyām nakṣatrābhyām aham divā, jāto himavatah pṛṣṭhe, tena mām Phālgunam viduḥ, iv. 44. 16 (cf. Arjuna, Arjunī=Phalgunī).

³ V. 114. 3: nityam prosthapadābhyām ca sukre dhanapatāu tathā, manusyebhyah samādatte sukrah (dhanam); xiii. 89. 13: pūrvaprosthapadāh kurvan bahūn vindaty ajāvikān, uttarāsu prakurvāņo vindate gāh sahasrasah.

⁴ Compare also the naksatrapurusaka of BS, cv.

Aśvinī and Aṣāḍhā; the hands, Hasta, etc.; while Citrā is replaced in B. by Mitra (C. has citram, sic), as follows: netre mṛgaśiro vidyāl lalāṭe mitram eva tu, śl. 8 (probably metrical). In this list the double asterisms are Phālgunī (sic), Bhādrapada, sg.; Aṣāḍhe, dual; while Nos. 8, 15, 21, 27, 28 are singular, and Nos. 7, 14, 22 are plural.

Various periphrases take the place of the names of the asterisms elsewhere in the epic. In xiii. 126. 36, gajacchāyāyām pūrvasyām kutape... yadā Bhādrapade māsi bhavate bahule $magh\bar{a}$, the "elephant's shadow," as in Manu iii. 274. Yāj. i. 218, is probably a constellation. According to the scholiast at xiv. 63, 18, naksatre 'hani ca dhruve, both Rohinī and the Uttarātraya (cf. BS. loc. cit., PW. s. v.) bear the name dhruva (Nos. 2 and 10, 19, 25). No. 1 is vahnidāivatam also in i. 221. 85; No. 16, Jyesthā, called by N. jyesthānakşatra, is regarded as Indra's (āindram, i. 123, 6). place of Anurādhā, No. 15, is taken by māitranaksatra-yoga in ix. 35. 14. In xiii. 89. 12, Šatabhisā (epic for -bhisaj), No. 23, is the naksatram vārunam; and in i. 8. 16, Phalgunī (uttarā, No. 10) is (for marriage) bhagadāivatam naksatram. The "five-star" asterism, Hasta, No. 11, is called sāvitram pañcatāram, i. 135. 30. On Śakradevatā (not of No. 16, Jvesthā, but) amāvāsyā, see above, p. 24, note. According to xiii. 104. 127 f., one should not perform a Śrāddha under one's natal asterism, nor under the two Prosthapadas, nor under Agneva (the Krttikās). The name Tisva for Pusva, No. 6, occurs in connection with the planet Brhaspati in the well-known prophecy at iii. 190. 90 f.:

yadā sūryaś ca candraś ca tathā Tiṣya-Bṛhaspatī ekarāśāu sameṣyanti prapatsyati tadā kṛtam,

"the perfect age will come again when sun and moon and the asterism Tisya with the planet Jupiter shall meet in one zodiacal sign." Cf. brahmarāśi below. Possibly the (solar) zodiac here referred to may have an earthly counterpart in the process of divination known as mrgacakra, alluded to at v. 48. 98 f.:

¹ The epic poet does not hesitate to make the planets Jupiter and Saturn stay a year in one asterism (as a bad sign), vi. 3. 27. See under Planets, below. Tisya was the birth-place of Jupiter, according to TB. iii. 1. 1. 5, cited by Tilak, *The Orion*, p. 161.

sāmvatsarā jyotiṣi cā 'bhiyuktā nakṣatrayogeṣu ca niścayajñāḥ uccāvacam dāivayuktam rahasyam divyāh praśnā mṛgacakrā muhūrtaḥ,

"astrologers and star-seers and those that tell fate by asterisms, secret prognostications, oracles, wheels of fortune, sooth-sayers(?)." I take muhūrta to be a metrical equivalent to māuhūrta, a soothsayer—astrologer. The latter word is found in xii. 121. 46, as in later literature. As to mṛgacakra, "animal-wheel," it seems to be what the modern Hindus call the "wheel of the nine planets" (compare śatapada=cakra), a sooth-saying device much in evidence at the beginning of the plague in 1896. The commentator explains it doubtfully as a pūrvanipāta for cakramṛga (asking questions with a wheel), according to the use prescribed in the Śivaite scriptures; the questions being astrological, "what is the asterism, by what planet is one injured?" Perhaps it is a zodiac wheel.

As in the stanza cited above, the asterisms are frequently brought into connection with the planets. Thus, in iii. 281. 6, "he looked like Saturn entering Rohinī." Another example occurs in xiii. 25. 22, where one is advised to perform ablutions at Great-Ganges, kṛṭṭṭkāngārake, "when Mars is in the Pleiades."

In indicating time, the day and asterism are usually in the locative: the month, locative or genitive: astame 'hani Rollinyām prayātāh Phālgunasya te, "they started on the eighth (day) of Phālguna under the asterism Rohinī," i. 145. 34; kṛṣṇapakṣe caturdaśyām rātrāu, "at night on the fourteenth (day) in the fortnight after the full moon," i. 147. 4; Mārgāśīrsasya māsasya candre Mūlena samyute, "when the moon of the month Mārgaśīrsa is in conjunction with the asterism Mūla," xiii. 110. 3; Pāusamāsasya śukle vāi yadā yujyeta Rohinī, "when Rohini is in conjunction in the fortnight before the moon is full in the month Pausa," ib. 126. 48. With the month in the locative and the fortnight in the genitive: Kārtike māsi cā 'sleṣābahulasyā 'ṣṭamī, " the eighth (day) of the fortnight after the full moon in the month Kartika under the asterism Āślesā," ib. 132. 7. With the new (and "full-moon") day, "month" is unnecessary (in xiii. 134. 4, somasyo 'ttisthamānasya VOL. XXIV.

pāurņamāsyām balim haret, the moon is object, "one should make an offering to the moon as it is rising on the full-moon night").

The passage referred to above, p. 15, containing the words Śravaṇādīni ṛkṣāṇi, "the asterisms begin with Śravaṇa," is of some importance for the date of the epic as well as for the way it was put together. In the lists already cited, the Kṛttikās, or Pleiades, begin the series of asterisms, while Śravaṇa is the twenty-first in the list, coming just before Dhaniṣthā = Śraviṣṭhā. As late as Yājñavālkya's law-book, i. 267, the Pleiades hold this position, as opposed to the still later scheme (since c. 490 A.D.) beginning with Aśvinī (to indicate the vernal equinox). The Vedāṇga Jyotiṣa list begins with Śraviṣṭhā, and Garga says that the Kṛttikās are the first asterism for the ritual, while Śraviṣṭhā is first for ordinary reckoning: karmasu kṛttikāḥ prathamam (nakṣatram) śraviṣṭhā tu samkhyāyāḥ (cited by Tilak, The Orion, p. 30).

Now we can scarcely believe that the stanza stating that Śravana is the first asterism refers only to the quality of the asterism as the best or foremost, since in the same stanza the relation of day to night is expressly that of priority and not of superiority. Nor is there here any reference to an "abortive attempt" to reform the calendar, as is claimed by Tilak, op. cit., p. 216. The fact is that even in i. 71. 34, where the change of the sphere is described, the act is not spoken of as abortive, but as one that succeeded. The translation of this latter passage, however, is not so certain as Tilak assumes; though the change of asterisms is apparently described as actually occurring. We are told that Viśvāmitra, in his anger, did several wonderful things. As he caused the river, Kāuśikī, to change its name to Pārā, so also "he made another world with a right arrangement of asterisms,"

 $cak\bar{a}r\bar{a}\ 'nya\dot{m}\ ca\ loka\dot{m}\ v\bar{a}i\ kruddho\ nakṣatrasampad\bar{a}.$

Then follows:

pratišravaņapūrvāņi nakṣatrāṇi cakāra yaḥ,

the obvious, though rather pointless meaning of which would be that "he made asterisms which had a prior promise." By separating the compound and giving $p\bar{u}rva$ the sense of $\bar{a}di$, Tilak arrives at the meaning "he made the asterisms begin with

Śravaṇa." But even if this be a doubtful rendering, we have here the statement that Viśvāmitra did rearrange the asterisms, and in xiv. 44. 2, the statement (but without allusion to this story) that Śravaṇa is the first asterism. In another passage, which describes how Abhijit, because she was jealous of Rohiṇī, her elder sister, retired from the group and became "a star fallen from heaven," nakṣatram gaganāc cyutam, Abhijit is replaced by the Pleiades. This is a tale, thus far without historical meaning (except as showing that Abhijit was regarded as originally in the group); but in the quandary as to what was to be done when Abhijit retired, it is said that

dhaniṣṭhādis tadā kālo brahmaṇā parikalpitaḥ,

"time was arranged by Brahman to begin with Dhanisthā," iii. 230. 10, which can mean only that this asterism was the first of the group.

We thus have a legend peculiar to the later epic describing a rearrangement of the asterisms; a decided difference between different parts of the epic in regard to the first asterism; and the probability that Śravaṇa was made the first asterism because the Vedānga system was no longer suited to the seasons, which had already receded a fortnight. In other words, the substitution of Śravaṇa points to a late date (approximating the modern substitution of Aśvinī) for these passages in books i. and xiv.

In the Purāṇas and classical literature, the nakṣatrāṇi are called rkṣāṇi, and this name is found appropriately enough in what is most certainly a pseudo-epic passage, xiii. 14. 37,

stobhā ṛkṣāṇi pitaro grahāḥ,

where the context shows the special meaning to be that of $\acute{s}ravan\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}ni\ rk\bar{\imath}ani$ in the other verse from the pseudo-epic, upon which I have just animadverted.

Of the far-reaching results drawn by Mr. Tilak from a study of the stars as affecting the date of the earliest Vedic literature, this is scarcely the place to speak, since my study is confined as closely as is convenient to epic conditions. But I would suggest the consideration of two facts. The first is that the loose and casual references to the minor heavenly bodies, and the

indifference with which they were regarded by the earliest depositaries of sacred wisdom make it improbable that any careful astronomical calculations were based upon them at a still earlier, pre-Vedic, period. The second is rather a corollary than a contradiction of this fact, namely, that though but little used as chronological guides, the stars are often regarded in their more obvious appearance, and there is no objection to postulating a primitive acquaintance with and veneration for brilliant stars, especially groups of stars, marking a seasonal change. Thus the savages of the South Sea Islands, though they can scarcely be said either to be star-worshippers in general, or to measure time by the stars, reckon the year (with thirteen moons) as beginning with the rising of the Pleiades just after sunset, about the middle of December, and "pay idolatrous worship to them."1

THE PLANETS.

The planets, or rather the grahas, which include the planets, are reckoned as a group of five (so RV. i. 105. 10?) or seven in the early epic; but the later epic makes them nine in number. The order in which they are named is interrupted by the intrusion of the additional grahas and even of gods, but it appears in xiii. 166. 17 as Venus, Jupiter, Mars, Mercury, Saturn, where Bhāuma, for Mars, is noteworthy. The eclipse-demon, Rāhu (whose dimensions, according to the epic, together with those of the sun and moon I have given in this Journal, vol. xxiii. p. 154), here appears between Budha and Śanāiścara (Mercury and Saturn). In iii. 3. 17, the order is Jupiter, Venus, Mercury, Mars, Saturn. Here Mars is, as usual, Angāraka. The group begins with the moon and Saturn is added after Indra, the sun, Agni, and Kṛṣṇa; the whole group being preceded by the group of the five elements:

śomo bṛhaspatiḥ śukro budho 'n̄gāraka eva ca indro vivasvān dīptāṅśuḥ śuciḥ śāuriḥ śanāiścaraḥ.

¹ Compare Gill, Myths and Songs, p. 317: "The Pleiades were worshipped [as harbingers of the new year] at Danger Island, and at the Penrhyns, down to the introduction of Christianity in 1857. In many islands extravagant joy is still manifested at the rising of this constellation out of the ocean."

According to v. 34. 54, the stars, nakṣatrāni, are affected by the grahas (N. sun, etc.). In vi. 17. 2 are mentioned "seven great grahas," mahāgrahāh, where the scholiast says that there are nine in all, "as Rāhu and Ketu are to be added as upagrahas." These upagrahas are recognized late in the epic, being mentioned in the Mārkaṇdeya episode, iii. 227. 1, with the grahas, seers, and mother-goddesses. In vi. 77. 11, where the sun is surrounded by krūrā mahāgrahāh, Rāhu, though the number is not stated, may be included. The technical name for hostile planets is here used. So in vii. 137. 23, "the seven Mahārathas oppressed Bhīma as the seven grahas (oppress) the moon at the destruction of living creatures" (somam sapta grahā iva; compare the "seven suns" active in pralaya). In viii. 37. 4,

niḥsaranto vyadṛśyanta sūryāt sapta mahāgrahāḥ.

The meaning, according to the scholiast, is that the grahas appeared advancing with the sun as the first of the seven.

In all these cases, when the number is given we find it to be not more than seven. But the ascending and descending node, Rāhu, Ketu, are mentioned together with the sun and moon and the planets Saturn, Mars, Jupiter with Venus, Mercury, in xiii. 17. 38, if we may trust the scholiast, who says that grahapati is for Mangala (Mars) and vara is for Brhaspati and Śukra; atri being for Budha and Śani (as elsewhere) for Śanāiścara. They are forms of God, who is the nidhi, highest number, the thousand-eyed soma, the nakṣatrasādhaka, and

candraḥ sūryaḥ śaniḥ ketur graho grahapatir varaḥ, Atriḥ, etc.

While it is doubtful whether the scholiast is right in this case, another late passage expressly reckons the *grahas* as nine, iv. 2. 21:

yam manye dvādaśam rudram ādityānām trayodaśam vasūnām navamam manye grahānām daśanam tathā,

where the tenth graha implies nine others. The sun, though sometimes not a graha, is expressly called a graha, and is lord of grahas, sūryo grahānām adhipo nakṣatrānām ca candramāh, xiv. 43. 6. At iii. 200. 85, are mentioned grahāh sūryādayb divi, "the grahas beginning with the sun," all being reckoned as dārunah or sivāh, unfavorable or favorable, according

to circumstances. Conversely, the planet Saturn is the son of the sun and Jupiter is reckoned among the suns, ādityeṣv eva ganyate, in i. 66. 39, as Śukra (Venus) is Bhṛgu's son, a planet meteorologically active, varṣāvarṣe bhayābhaye, ib. 42, though regarded also as the female side of Bṛhaspati (Venus and Jupiter).

Sporadic mention of the planets (five in number in vi. 100. 37, grahāh paāca, opposed to the sun; and to the moon, ib. 38) is common enough. In vi. 101. 59, two heroes are compared to Mercury and Venus; and ib. 104. 21, to Mercury and Saturn. The last is named also in ix. 16. 10, (rane) candramaso 'bhyāse śanāiścāra iva grahah, Saturn near the moon illustrating Śalya near Yudhisthira in battle. Such references are found not infrequently: aāgāraka-budhāv iva, two heroes, "appeared like Mars and Mercury," viii. 15. 16; naksatram abhito vyomni śukrāāgirasayor iva (yuddham), a battle such "as in heaven is the battle of Venus and Jupiter respecting an asterism," ib. 17. 1; vakrātivakragamanād aāgāraka iva grahah, a hero storms about "like the planet Mars returning in his orbit," ib. 19. 1.

In the same book, in which occur most of these allusions, viii. 18. 5, another reference has a pun on the word *graha*, the "seizer:"

sa Māghadānām pravaro 'ākuśagrahe grahe 'prasahyo vikaco yathā grahah,

where vikaca is "the headless one," Rāhu, who is here a "seizer," but is not grouped with the planets.

Bad signs are given by the planets. In vi. 3. 12 f., the "white graha," Ketu, passing Citrā stands still; a great graha, a comet, dhūmaketu, attacks Pusya (the warrior's asterism); Mars, aūgāraka, turns among the Maghās, maghāsu vakrah; and Jupiter turns in Śravaṇa; the sun's son, Saturn, attacks Pūrvā Phalgunī, bhagam nakṣatram; Venus shines in Pūrvā Proṣṭhapadā and going about in Uttarā associated (with an upagraha) desires attack; the white graha attacking Jyeṣṭhā, āindram nakṣatram, stands still. The Pole-star (? dhruva) flames;

¹ Compare ŚB. iv. 6. 5. 1 f., where the sun is a *graha* and "the whole Brāhmaṇa is a play on the word *graha*," as Eggeling says (cf. ib. xiv. 1. 4. 2).

sun and moon distress Rehinī; between Citrā and Svāti is the fierce graha; and Mars, lohitān̄ga, turns about Śravaṇa, called here (so N.) Brahma-rāśi. So in v. 143. 8 f., and viii. 94. 49 f., the "son of the moon," Mercury, goes transversely, being fire-colored; while Jupiter, encircling Rohinī, becomes moon-colored. In ix. 11. 17, Venus and Mars with Mercury go behind the Pandus, portending the fate of their foes. Here Venus is "Bhṛgu's son" and Mars is the "son of earth," dharāputra, while Mercury is again the "son of the moon," śaśija. When the moon is upside down and the planets encircle the sun to the left, something terrible will happen: apasavyam grahāś cakrur alakṣmānam divākaram, avākśirāś ca bhagavān upātiṣṭhata candramāh, vi. 112. 12.

There is no passage in the epic which gives the Greek order of the planets, Sun, Moon, Mars, Mercury, Jupiter, Venus, Saturn, and this fact, according to Professor Jacobi, ZDMG. xxx, p. 307, would imply that the date of composition was not later than the third century A.D. This would be valid for the greater part of the epic, but would not exclude the possibility of still later additions having nothing to do with planets. The rare mention of the group of nine grahas, confined to what we may unhesitatingly call the later part of the epic, shows that the grahas in the early epic were reckoned only as five, or seven with the sun and moon added, without recognition of the nodes, Ketu and Rāhu, as part of the "group of nine planets."

That the heavenly bodies are sentient creatures needs scarcely be observed. The planets have merit, punya, after losing which, kṣīnapunyāh, they fall (as shooting stars); and they become sad when they see distressing sights. Thus in i. 210. 26: "moon and sun, the grahas, the stars, the asterisms, (all) the inhabitants of the sky, beheld the deed, became despondent." For varied views on this point, see my Great Epic, p. 380. The formal adoration of planets in connection with Ganesa is recommended in Yāj. i. 292 f., who recognizes nine grahas, sun, moon, son of earth, son of moon, Brhaspati, Śukra, Śanāiścara, Rāhu, Ketu. Their worship consists in making metal or pictured models, to which are given clothes, flowers, incense, rice, etc.; and to each planet eight hundred and twenty-eight pieces of a special kind of wood (burned for each); rites later than epic ideas, to judge from silence on a theme so attractive.

SUN, YEARS, AGES, AEONS, AND CYCLES.

The extended astronomical phraseology of the late epic may be illustrated by the gift-laud in iii. 200, 125 f., where occurs the advanced technicality implied in the word sadasītimukha. After stating that a gift at the time of the new moon or the full moon has a double value and that a gift at a season-time would be of ten-fold value, parvasu dvigunam dānam rtāu daśagunam bhavet, the poet adds that the reward would be endless if one gave gifts at the equinox, visuva (tulāmesasamkrāntuoh, N.), when the sun is sadaśītimukhesu, that is (the sun's path being divided into arcs of 86°, commencing with the autumnal equinox, JAOS, vi. p. 410 f.), entering Gemini, Virgo, and Pisces (mithunakanyāmīnasamkrāntisu, N.), or at the eclipse, uparāge (eclipsed is upapluta, passim), of the moon This information is conveyed in ślokas. Part of it is then repeated, amplified, and embellished by being stated over again more artistically:1

> rtuşu dasagunam vadanti dattam satagunam rtvayanādişu dhruvam bhavati sahasragunam dinasya Rāhor viṣuvati cā 'kṣayam asnute phalam.

At the same time, though one or two other passages (see above, p. 32) point to the recognition of the solar zodiac, I cannot believe that this was known in the epic period; for in that case there would inevitably have been references to some samkrānti, which term, however, does not once appear.

Time is often measured by groups of five divisions, either as "months, seasons, semesters, years, ages," as in xii. 47. 66, or without ages and with day and night, of which the world is made: ahorātramaye loke... mṛtyur grasati bhūtāni pavanam pannage yathā, xii. 299. 29. It is this latter group which Nīlakaṇtha thinks has given to Viṣṇu, in xii. 339 (66), his title of Pañcakālakartrpati, "lord of the five makers of time;" though as Pañcarātrika follows and as Nīlakaṇtha also gives the five as those of Gītā, 18. 15, the real application of the epithet remains doubtful. In xiii. 149. 60, Visnu is naksatranemir nakṣatrī.

¹ For the irregular form of the meter, see my Great Epic, p. 344.

² Compare the Anugītā, xiv. 45. 2f., where the "wheel of time" turns on day and night, ahorātraparikṣepam, but is counted, gaṇitam, by months and half-months.

The period of day and night, the months, and the seasons having been discussed, there remain the year and greater periods The year (prativatsara, ii. 74. 19, and śārada, iii. 99. 24, are unique; other designations are those current, varsa, parivatsara, etc.) is divided most frequently (as in RV. i. 164. 48, etc.) in metaphors. In the "forest of the great world," kāntāra, there is "a black and white elephant, having six faces, twelve feet," the year with its dark and light halves of the month, seasons, and months, xi. 5, 15; 6, 11. Two men dance hand in hand and six men play with golden dice (day and night and the six seasons), xiii. 42 and 43. 4f. The whole year is measured by the "twelve-fold sun," which is spoken of as becoming "twelve suns," dvādaśādityatām gatah, iii. 3. 59, dvādaśātman, ib. 26; dvādaśā 'dityān kathayantī 'ha dhīrāh, iii. 134. 19. This is God's form at the destruction of the universe: "as twelve suns" he destroys, xii. 313. 4. Again, the year is a wheel of twelve spokes, turned by six boys, while two girls weave black and white threads; this wheel, however, also having three hundred and sixty spokes and twenty-four divisions, parvayoga, i. 3. 146 (also xii. 246. 32). Compare iii. 133. 24 f.:

trinsakadvādasānsasya caturvinsatiparvaņah yah trisastisatārasya vedā 'rtham sa parah kavih caturvinsatiparva . . . ṣaṇnābhi dvādasapradhi tat trisastisatāram vāi cakram,

which adds the "group of thirty," trinsaka, as one of the divisions, twelve months of thirty days each. In xiii. 159. 23, the year as the wheel of time has three naves, seven steeds, and three divisions, trinābhi, saptāśvayuktam, tridhāma; the first implying the periods of cold, heat, rain; the last, rain, wind, heat; according to the scholiast (compare RV. i. 164. 2). In i. 3. 58, the weaving of the year appears again, but a new metaphor follows, that of three hundred and sixty cows having one calf, ib. 60; and ib. 61 the wheel again has seven hundred and twenty spokes. The wheel of time is analyzed in ii. 11. 37, as having divisions of ksanas, lavas, muhūrtas, day and night, half months, months, seasons (six), years, the cycle of five years, pañcayuga, and the "four-fold day and night," ahorātraś caturvidhah, that is, as they belong to men, Manes (whose day is a moon-month), to gods (measured by years), and to Brah-

man (measured by ages). This is the sole passage in the epic recognizing the five-year cycle by that name (Brāh. pañcakaṁ yugam). It may be inferred from the attempt made to bring the solar and lunar year into line in iv. 52. 3,

pañcame pañcame varșe dvāu māsāv upajāyatah,

where, in Vedic phrase, RV. i. 25. 8, there is a calculation of the months "born after;" though here an estimate is made of the difference in the course of thirteen years between the lunar and solar years. The epic here uses the technical term, abhyadhika, and says that in this period five months and twelve days would be in excess,

eṣām abhyadhikā māsāḥ pañca ca dvādaśa kṣapāḥ trayodaśānāṁ varṣāṇām.

The difference is caused by "excess of time," $k\bar{a}l\bar{a}tirekena$, and "the transit of luminaries," $jyotis\bar{a}m$ ca $vyatikram\bar{a}t$.\text{1} In this passage the "wheel of time" suffers "partition" into the elements already mentioned, $kal\bar{a}$, $k\bar{a}sth\bar{a}$, $muh\bar{u}rta$, dina, including asterisms and grahas as time-recorders, after fortnight, month, season, and year.

Two other passages may possibly refer to the five-year cycle by implication and suggestion. One of these is that containing the pseudo-epic name of Visnu, Vatsara, xiii. 149. 63, as this is the name of the year of a cycle; and the other is the passage, i. 124. 22, likening the (group of) five Pandus to years: anusamvatsaram jātāh. Pānduputrā vyārājanta paāca samvatsarā iva, "like (the group of) five years." The sixth-year intercalated month of thirty-six days (SB. ix. 1. 1. 43; x. 5. 4. 12) is not recognized in the epic.

After the time-table given above, p. 13, which is virtually that of the later first book of Manu and of the Purāṇas, the epic poet, like the law-giver, continues with an account of greater periods of time. The sun, as is often said, is the chief divider of time. God is "the fruit in the acts accomplished in the moments and other (time-divisions) of the sharp-rayed sun," xiii. 14. 419. The sun divides the day and night into work-time and sleeptime. In the day and night of the Manes, the bright fortnight

 $^{^1}$ In five years there are sixty days over; in thirteen, one hundred and fifty-six days, five (lunar) months and twelve days (156 $-12\!=\!144\!+\!5\!=\!28\frac{4}{5}$).

is their day and the dark is their night! Manu inverts the order, 1. 66; but here, krsnah svapnāya śarvarī, etc., there is a confusion of men and Manes. A year of man is a day and The northern course of the sun in their night of the gods. day; the southern, their night. Their are four ages, Krta, of four thousand years, etc., as in Manu, with the "twilight periods of just as many hundreds;" each later age losing a quarter, ekanādena hīvante, in thousands and hundreds. 3, the name of the fourth age, Kali, is Tisva. The length of the ages is stated again, as just given, in iii. 188. 22 f., but without aeonic speculations added. The moral qualities of each age are often described; at length, for example, in iii. 149. According to the usual later view, the Kali age begins with the death of Krsna; but according to v. 142. 8 f., at the very beginning of the great war, though probably the moral and not the chronological side is emphasized in Krsna's repeated words. na tadā bhavitā tretā na krtam dvāparam na ca. That "the Rāj makes the age" is an epic truism that discounts all chronology. As to how the ages got their twilights, see Mr. Aiver's Chronology of Ancient India, p. 129, where it is shown that one-tenth of the age makes the twilight, as the twilight of a day is one-tenth of a day of twelve hours, measuring 3 ahatikās, 1 h. 12 m.

The sum of the thousands and hundreds (to continue the timetable already cited) is twelve thousand (years). Both seers and mathematicians, samkhyāvidah, recognize this age, yuga, of twelve thousand (years); and one thousand such ages (12,000,000 human years) are equal to a day of Brahman, whose night is of the same length, sahasrayugaparyantam, xii. 232. 15 f. Nothing is said here of divine Yugas. In xii. 343. 3, the period of creation lasts till the end of a thousand caturyugas. The day of Brahman is again recognized as a thousand Yugas in iii. 3. 55 and vi. 32, 17, with no intimation that the Yuga is other than that of the twelve thousand human-year Yuga. The divyam varṣasahasram is a commonplace in tales, as in the account at iii. 173. 7 of Dāitya austerities. According to xii. 227. 70, the (Vedic) gods live only a thousand (divine) years, varṣasahasrānam.

The aeons, Kalpas, mark a greater period. At the end of a Kalpa the creative eighth of God changes, parivartate, xii. 281.

63. The Kalpa is thus one day of the creator-god (1000×12000 years) and forms a new unit. It is in such units that the day of Brahman is reckoned in the later epic, xii. 312. 1f. The day of the Unmanifest is "twice five thousand Kalpas," pañca kalpasahasrāni dvigunāny ahar ucyate, and his night is the same. He creates, when he wakes, the demiurge creator, Brahman, and the latter's day is the same length less a pāda, daśa kalpasahasrāni pādonāny ahar ucyate. Thus Brahman's day is now reckoned as one quarter less than that of the Unmanifest, or as seven thousand five hundred Kalpas, "and his night is of the same extent."

According to Manu, 1. 71 f., the total of four ages, consisting in all of twelve thousand (human) years, is one age of the gods, and a day of Brahman is a thousand such divine ages, the expressions being caturyugam (dvādaśasāhasram) as devānām yugam, and dāivikānām yugānām sahasram as brāhman ekam ahaḥ. Now in xii. 208. 9, Soma is represented as a paryupāsitā, ascetic reverer (?), during a thousand divine ages, sahasram divyānām yugānām, which should be a day of Brahman; and in xii. 328. 24, Mahādeva stands, as an ascetic, on one foot during a divyam varṣasahasram, or thousand years divine (of the gods). But in xii. 303. 14, as in the Kalpa enumeration above, the day of Brahman is reckoned not in ages, Yugas, but in aeons, Kalpas, albeit not of the same sort:

yugam dvādašasāhasram kalpam vidhi caturyugam dašakalpašatāvṛttam ahas tad brāhmam ucyate,

"know that twelve thousand (years) are an age; a total of four ages, an aeon; the day of Brahman is said to be ten hundred times an aeon." Nīlakantha interprets the years and ages as divine, and the Kalpa as a thousand caturyugas, the Kalpa thus being a day of Brahman. This certainly cannot be extracted from the text, though it is the orthodox view. Nīlakantha at this place reckons out the year of Brahman in divine days and years, which gives the usual Puranic creative period. But a thousand caturyugas being the usual epic view of a day of Brahman, the text above is uncombinable with other epic data,

¹The third creation (Ego-creation) and sense-creation have, respectively, days of five and three thousand Kalpas. ib. 11 and 15.

and must be twisted out of its real meaning to be in accord with them.

Two passages give the duration of a single spirit's reincarnations, in which the $j\bar{\imath}va$ is supposed to wander. In xii. 304. 44; 305. 1 (continuation of the passage above) the spirit passes through $sargakotisahasr\bar{a}ni$ or thousands of crores of creations; and in xii. 281. 36 and 43, every $j\bar{\imath}va$, in a Buddhistic passage, passes through fourteen hundred thousand courses on its way to perfection; eight hundred periods of $samh\bar{a}raviksepa$ in man's estate alone.

Only the later epic knows the Mahā-kalpas by name. Thoroughly Puranic are the passages; xii. 337. 1, tato 'tīte mahā-kalpe; 340, 115, mahākalpasahasrāni mahākalpasatāni ca samatītāni rājendra sargās ca pralayās ca ha. So in xiii. 107. 77, phalam padmasataprakhyam mahākalpam dasādhikam; but never any such allusion in the real epic.

After the specimen of time-measures given in my Great Epic, p. 206, I need offer no further examples of the epic's tendency to count time by "oceans," sāgara, and other similar terms, padma, patākā, śaāku, nidhi, etc. They will be found, years rolled up to countless billions, in xiii. 107. 21 f., to select only one short passage from the numerous instances afforded by these arithmetical jugglers. As the poets come to consider the extent of time in aeons, creations, visarga and samhāra, the imagination is stretched to its utmost to devise parallels illustrative of the periods. A particle of sand removed daily from the Himālaya till all the mountain is reduced to the plain; a drop of water daily drawn from thousands of league-long mile-deep lakes till all are drained; such are the images that describe these (pseudo-epic) creations. One will suffice: xii. 281. 30 f.:

samhāravikṣepasahasrakoṭīs
tiṣṭhanti jīvāḥ pracaranti cā 'nye'
prajāvisargasya ca pārimānyam
vāpīsahasrāṇi bahūni, dāitya,
vāpyaḥ punar yojanavistṛtās tāḥ
krośam ca gambhīratayā 'vagādhāḥ

¹ The inanimate and animate world.

āyāmatah pañcaśatāś ca sarvāh
pratyekaśo yojanatah pravṛddhāh
vāpyā jalam kṣipyati vālakoṭyā¹ tv
ahnā sakṛc cā 'py atha na dvitīyam
tāsām kṣaye viddhi param visargam
samhāram ekam ca tathā prajānām.

The passage cited above, p. 32, from iii. 190. 90, which speaks of sun, moon, Jupiter and Tisya as being together, implies the recognition of the sixty-year Brhaspati cycle, as the sun, moon, and Brhaspati are in Pusya once only in this cycle.²

The doctrine of Manvantaras is implied (according to the commentator) in Bali's prophecy at xii. 225, 31. When the sun shining in the meridian, madhyamdine, ceases to shine from all directions, then there will be war again between the gods and Indra repudiates the idea, however, saving that the sun will never depart from his ordained course. Manyantara-theory may well be implied here, for, though foreign to the early epic, the Manyantaras, not only in their earlier form but even in their later fourteen-Manu form, are known to the pseudo-epic. In the early epic, only the Mihira hymn, a late intrusion, recognizes these periods of time. Here, iii. 3. 55-56, a day of Brahman is defined (as above) and the Manus and Manvantaras are referred to. The periods are referred to next in xii. 59. 115 and the first group of Manus is implied at xii. 285. 1, Vāivasvate 'ntare, which phase appears again in 337. 56, "when the Treta Yuga shall have replaced Krta in the (Many)antare of Vivasvat." From here on, the later epic is full of allusions to the Manyantaras: pūrve ca manvantare Svāyambhuve, 343. 26; Manoh svāyambhuve 'ntare, 350. 42; manvantaresu, ib. 43; Manu Svārocisa, 349. 36 f.; Śanāiścarah (Saturn) sūryaputro bhavisyati Manur mahān, tasmin manvantare cāi 'va Manvādiganapūrvakah (tvam eva bhavitā, vatsa), 350. 55. In xiii. 14. 38-39, for the first time in the epic, the Manvantaras appear (as protectors, in connection with the wives, maids, and mother of the gods) along with seasons,

¹ The water of the lake as flung out drop by drop with "the end of a hair" seems to be a play on the chronological meaning of *koți*, the "end" of arithmetic thought.

² Compare Aiyer, Chronology, p. 133.

years, kṣanas, lavas, muhūrtas, nimeṣas and Yuga-changes. Finally, a Manu of the second group (of seven) appears in xiii. 18. 43, Sāvarnasya Manoh svarge saptarṣiś ca bhaviṣyati.

The real epic knows nothing of Great Kalpas and secondary Manyantaras. They belong to the Puranic period including the later epic, but even the first (Puranic) chapter of Manu falls short of the extravagance reflected in Santi and Anusasana. In regard to the cogency of this relation used as an argument historically, it does not appear to me that the remark of M. Barth, Bulletin, 1902, p. 30, poses the question properly. Here, in a résumé of a similar argument, M. Barth says: "ces mentions sont rares dans les portions narratives, fréquentes dans les parties didactiques, ce que, à première vue, paraît assez naturel." The light sarcasm would be justified if the preceding words gave the whole situation, but they do not. The narrative portions of the poem are not quite sundered from didactic material, and the point is that such didactic material, though treating of the same matter, treats it in less modern fashion: whereas the treatment of Santi and Anusasana is, in contrast, rather that of the later Puranas. Fear of being thought "expert in cutting up the poem" need deter no one from the admission that epic chronology represents an earlier point of view in the early books, and the Puranic point of view in what I call the pseudo-epic. Nay, rather, one might ask, is he an expert historian who thinks that such a difference of view is quite without historical significance?

EXCURSUS. ANALYSIS OF EPIC DATES.

The Pandus were born a year apart, i. 124. 22, and when they first went to Pañcāla they were all proficient in the use of arms. The youngest must therefore have been at least 16 years old, and Arjuna 17 at this time, when they ravaged Drupada's kingdom, i. 61. 31–35; 135–138 (Karņa made king of Añga, 136). A year after this, Yudhisthira was installed, 139. 1, and Drupada sought a son to avenge his overthrow, 167. 14 (Arjuna now 18). Some time was spent in conquering the world, 139, but, regarding this as a matter of a few weeks (!), the next stage is marked by the expedition to Vāraṇāvata, where the Pandus spent a year (148. 1, Arjuna was now 19), before they traversed the woods and, after spending quite a long time, cira-

rātrositāh, 168. 3, at Ekacakrā, went to Pañcāla again, 168. 11. Here they remained one year, parisamvatsarositāh, 1. 61. 31, after getting Drāupadī (she was born grown up, like her twin brother), and Arjuna must then have been 20. After this they visited Hastinā, went to Khāndava, and remained there "many years," samvatsaraganān bahūn, before Arjuna was exiled, i. 61. 35.

Arjuna on being exiled "lived a whole year and one month in the wood" and then sought out Kṛṣṇā at Dvāravatī and took Subhadrā, i. 61. 42,

sa vāi samvatsaram pūrņam māsam cāi 'kam vane vasan tato 'gacchad Dhṛṣīkeśam, etc.

Then, after the burning of Khāndava and the gambling at Hastinā, the Pandus were exiled for 13 years; and the war began on the 14th year, i. 61. 50, etc.

If the "many years" at Khāndava be reckoned only as three, Arjuna would be 23 when exiled for circa two years, aet. 25, returning 4 years before the banishment of all the Pandus, at the beginning of which he would be 29, and at the end of the 13 years, when his son was 16, Arjuna himself would be 42. Part of the years reckoned by Abhimanyu's age is included in the 1 year 2 months of the building of the Sabhā, ii. 3. 37, māsāih paricaturdaśaih.

But discrepancies occur. There is no record of a year spent with Drupada in the full account of the wedding. On the contrary, i. 199-207 imply that the Pandus return to Hastina soon after the wedding. Nor is it consistent that the Pandus, who have already ravaged Drupada's kingdom, should regard it as apūrvadrsta on their second journey thither, i. 138 and 168. 6. In i. 141, moreover, Yudhisthira is clearly not yet installed as heir-apparent, although he had already been installed in i. 139. 1, a year after Drupada's defeat. Even the year spent in Varanāvata (i. 149. 1) seems in i. 146 and 147 to be regarded as a term of a month or a few days. There is no inconsistency in the timeless birth and growth of Bhīma's son, for it is expressly declared to be such; though the period of wandering, i. 156, should occupy some reasonable time omitted in the account above. But the difference between the clear statement of the first book, that Arjuna lived a year and a month in the

wood and then raped Subhadrā, and the subsequent prolongation of Arjuna's exile to twelve years i. 212–221, three years of which are spent at Manipur, i. 215. 26, and one each in Dvāraka and Puskara, 231, is important for the critique of the epic. Drāupadī's five children were born "at intervals of a year," ekavarsāntarāh, i. 221. 66, 78, 86, but though Arjuna's son was necessarily born nearly a year after his return, and was a young warrior in the great war, his age at death is not specified. There is a difficulty, however, even here, for Drāupadī's sons born one and two years later are also young fighters and the youngest would be but 14, whereas Abhimanyu at 16 is always celebrated as the youthful warrior par excellence, and 16 is the youngest age at which boys were considered equal to war.

Another discrepancy which gives a comical effect is found in iii. 33. 12, where Abhimanyu, who should now be about four, is solemnly said to be one of those who did not approve of Yudhisthira's life! At this time the Pandus had lived 13 months in the wood. In iii. 36-37 they still live "some time" before Arjuna starts on his trip. Five years Arjuna passed in heaven, iii. 44. 5; 141. 7; 164. 17, while the Pandus waited five years for him, iii. 50. 12. In iii. 158. 3, the time of wandering is now four years. Ariuna is to be expected about the fifth, pañcanīm abhitah samām, and in iii. 165-174. 9 the five vears end with Arjuna's return. In iii. 176. 5-8 they "lived six years before and four years with Arjuna," ten sāmah altogether, and it is now the eleventh year in the wood, ekādaśam varsam idam vasāmah. After this they lived in Viśākhayūpa forest one year, 177. 17 (with some preliminary marching), and in 177. 20, the somewhat belated twelfth year arrives, dvādaśam varṣam upopayātam. The twelve years in the forest are referred to again in 183. 39; 239. 18 as not yet over. In iii. 243. 15, Yudhisthira cannot rescue Duryodhana personally because of his vow, kratu, but he urges his brother to do this! In this (twelfth) year, Karna (already the king of Anga) conquers the Angas (and Drupada), and all the north, east, west, and south country (254. 19), including the Yavanas and other foreigners all "in a short time," kālena nā 'tidīrghena, 254. 33.

A year and eight months now elapse (after the twelfth year has begun) and the Pandus are still in the wood, eating deer (after the Ghosayātrā), sāṣṭamāsam hi no varṣam yad enān vol. xxiv.

upayukṣmahe (eating the deer here), iii. 258. 12 (after the liberation of Duryodhana in 246; here Yudhiṣṭhira has a conversation with Duryodhana after rescuing him).

By this time about fourteen years must have passed since the Pandus were banished, but in iii. 259 the narrative reverts with the opening statement that while they dwelt miserably in the woods "eleven years passed away," as if the twelfth had not yet come. The thirteenth year, however, finally comes, iii. 315. 5, śeṣaṁ varṣaṁ trayodaśam, the completion of the twelfth being announced in 310. 41, "what did they do when the twelfth year was over?"

In the fourth book occurs the most glaring inconsistency in The bow of Arjuna is here said to have been already carried for 65 years by that hero (who is now 40 or 50 years old, according to the contradictory data already furnished), iv. 43. 6. The 13 years of waiting are paralleled by the 13 days which Draupadi begs to be allowed still to remain in the town, 24. 29, the agreement and the 13th year expiring, iv. 31. 2 and 4, on the Trigarta expedition, though in 47. 4 the 13th year is not vet over, vartate tu trayodasam, in Duryodhana's opinion. But it becomes now a question of years reckoned as lunar or solar, five months and twelve days being the difference (see above, p. 42). In 26. 3, Duryodhana says that most of the time is past and very little remains, alpāvašistam kālasya gatabhūyistham antatah; in 21.17, only a month and a half remain. In 48. 5, Arjuna is represented as having been samāhitah (and therefore out of practice in fighting) for 13 years, varsany astāu ca pañca ca; in iv. 49. 6-8, he is said to have learned arms from Sakra for 5 years, as he practiced brahmacarya for 5 years and then stole Drāupadī. In iv. 49. 18 Arjuna is said by Krpa to be freed, having been deceived, nikrtah, by the Kurus for 13 years, as in 62. 14. The exile in the wood for 12 years is alluded to in 60. 7. Finally, in iv. 72. 14, on the end of the 13th year, trayodaśe varse nivrtte, being at Upaplavya, Abhimanvu is married (cf. 23).

In v. 1. 11-13, varṣāni ṣaṭ sapta ca trayodaśaś cāi 'va sudustaro 'yam, the 13th year is now ended. In v. 20. 9, the expression vāsitāś ca mahāranye varṣānī 'ha trayodaśa seems to imply that the 13 years are passed in a forest; but the sequence recognizes the Virāta episode. In v. 21. 13, Karna says the 13 years are not yet past, and puts it as if they still had to stay in

the wood, yathāpratijñam kālam tam carantu vanam āśritāh. Although Virāta is recognized in v. 22, yet no notice is taken of the sojourn there in v. 26, where indeed it is said (25) that the Kurus live only because they have not yet heard Arjuna's bow, a curious statement in view of iv. 55, etc. The thirteen years (one incognito) are recognized, however, in v. 48. 92, and elsewhere (below).

In v. 52. 10-11 occurs the following sloka, spoken just before the war, at the end of the thirteenth year (the subject is Arjuna):

trayastrinsat samāhūya khāndave 'gnim atarpayat jagāya ca surān sarvān nā 'sya vidmah parājayam.

C has $s\bar{u}ta$, vocative, for $h\bar{u}ya$, and N. interprets "thirty-three years, $sam\bar{a}h$, are past." But this is impossible. B's reading is evidently correct (N.'s comment fits only C!) and the 33 are not years but the gods challenged by Arjuna, $sam\bar{a}h\bar{u}ya$ being a common epic word in these circumstances.

Another year appears to be added in v. 79. 19, where the cattle-lifting foray of Virāṭa is alluded to as occurring samvatsaragate 'dhvani, "on the expedition of a year past" (N. gatasamvatsare; cf. xi. 3. 16, samvatsaragata, "a year old"). But in v. 82. 40 it is still only 13 years that Drāupadī has waited for revenge, and Pṛthā says in v. 90. 47, caturdaśam idam varṣam yan nā 'paśyam (Drāupadīm), so ib. śl. 60 and 70; and in 129. 47, the queen says, alam añga nikāro 'yam trayodaśasamāḥ kṛtaḥ. The "fourteenth year" merely implies that the thirteenth is ended.

An apparent discrepancy occurs at v. 141. 13. Karna was made king of Anga at the tournament, which according to the narrative already given occurred several years before the gambling. Yet in this passage Karna declares that through his fidelity to the Kāurava prince he has enjoyed a kingdom "without thorns" for thirteen years, mayā trayodaśa samā bhuktam rājyam akantakam. This may be made to mean that his kingdom has been thornless only since the retirement of the Pandus; but the natural interpretation is that the kingdom has been his only for the time mentioned, for Karna himself is reviewing his life and this is the only allusion in his speech to the kingdom given to him by Duryodhana. The explanation, however, lies rather in the assumption of a poetic lapsus, for the words are

almost identical with those employed by Duryodhana himself in v. 160. 110, where he says to Arjuna, trayodaśa samā bhuktam rājyam vilapatas tava, and the thirteen years of kingly enjoyment on the part of Duryodhana are contrasted with the weeping of his foes (161. 8 and 28 repeat this in the herald's words).

The exact time of the battle is given as to occur on the seventh day from the interview in v. 142. 17, at the time of the new moon. In Mr. Aiyer's little book, The Chronology of Ancient India, the statement in v. 83. 7, that Krsna set out on his mission "in Kartika, under the star Revati, at the end of autumn," is united with this, which in turn is interpreted to mean that the new moon will happen in Jyestha Naksatra (in seven days, emended by Mr. Aiyer to "ten"). It was, however, under Pusya Naksatra that the Kuru army took the field, v. 150. 3, pusyo 'dya, as did the Pandus, ix. 35. 10 and 15. and the armies were prepared, according to vi. 17. 2, maghāvisayagah somah under Maghā. The asterism should be Citrā (v. 143, 10; vi. 3, 12, 28, etc.). Eighteen days of battle are recognized, save in the interpolation of Balarama, whose journev can be interpreted only to mean that the battle lasted fortytwo days (below).

During the battle, the only point to be noticed is the age of the combatants, the leaders Duryodhana and Yudhisthira being now over forty or fifty (as above). Arjuna, two years younger, is taruna and yuvan, Nakula is sukumāro yuvā śūrah. but Drona is eighty-five; vii. 12. 22; 83. 23; 110. 81; 125. 73; 126. 39. Despite these epithets applied to the Pandus, which imply middle-age strength or even youthful delicacy, in vii. 196. 44. Arjuna says that the short remnant of their days will be affected by Drona's unrighteous death, yadā gatam vayo bhūyah sistam alpataram ca nah, "gone is the greater part of life, it is the lesser part remains to us," though vayah (cf. pravayah) may imply strength of life more than life (yet the conclusion does not favor this, tasye 'dānīm vikāro 'yam adharmo 'yam krto mahān). Karna also is yuvan, viii. 8. 11. not middle-age, however, according to the antithesis of yāuvana. madhya, vrddha, or yāuvana, madhya, jarā (see the citations, in the last article of the series in this Journal), nor can it be interpreted as fool's age as in x. 3. 11, for it is intended, as in the citations above, for a compliment. The time-term for fool is bāla, as in xi. 17. 20, applied to Duryodhana.

After the battle comes the inconsistency of Balarāma's expedition. He started out just before the battle and returned at its close, making forty-two days in all, from Puṣya to Śravaṇa, catvāriṅśad ahāny adya dve ca, etc., ix. 34. 6; 54. 12.

It is quite impossible to reconcile this with the statements in regard to the length of the battle (eighteen days) found elsewhere in the epic. In ix. 35. 14, Balarāma starts under Māitra Naksatra, i. e. Anurādhā. Mr. Aiyer, op. cit. p. 101, emends by changing 42 to 24, catvārinsat to caturvinsaty, and Śravane to Rohinyām; but this is merely a confession of inability to reconcile the conflicting statements except by changing the text completely. At the same place, Mr. Aiver endeavors to reconcile the appearance of the moon in the night battle in vii. 185 f. on the fourteenth day, with the previous account of the new moon. Mr. Aiver's conclusion that the war ended on the 51st day before the winter solstice, and began on Oct. 14th, 1194 B.C. (or that at least the war took place in the latter half of this year), does not depend altogether on the rectification of these obvious errors, but is based to some extent on the interpretation of the doubtful verse xiii. 168. 28 (27, "for 58 nights Bhīsma lies on his couch"), as already explained.

In xi. 17. 21, "he who has enjoyed undisputed royalty for 13 years now lies dead," the fourteenth year implied in the early account is pointedly ignored, as it is elsewhere, notably in viii. 68. 9, "there are now these 13 years in which we have lived in the hope of Arjuna," and the battle takes place immediately on the end of the 13th year.

But as to the assumption that the Pandus were originally banished for only twelve years and that the thirteenth year is a later addition, it must be proved by the content, style, and metrical form of Virāta rather than by the discrepancies in the texts that refer to the years of banishment. I used to think that the thirteenth year was interpolated on the further ground that such discrepancies revealed a prior stage in which the thirteenth year was actually unrecognized, as in iii. 24. 2; v. 72. 9; but a careful survey of all the cases now leads me to the conclusion that this may be due merely to the poetic point of view. An example as good as any other is found in vii. 137. 47, in which a reference is make to the fire of rage lasting 13 years, and 197. 7, "the impatience of 13 years," as compared with ib. 145. 93, where "the sorrow of 12 years" is mentioned.

In one case the anger during the whole period, in the other the wretchedness during the life in the wood, is emphasized. viii. 9. 58, it is said that Yudhisthira did not sleep for thirteen vears because of his fear of Karna, a statement repeated in different words in 66. 15 and again in xi. 21. 7, and this is presented, in viii. 74. 47, as the grief acquired in thirteen years. duhkham trayodaśasamārjitam, whereas in viii. 11. 27 mention is made of the grief (arrow) of twelve years, śalyo mama dvādaśavārsikah. Other references in this book are found in viii. 91. 4, in which an extra year is recognized besides twelve in the wood, and 96. 45, "we shall sleep well to-day after being awake in sorrow for 13 years." The next book too recognizes only 13 years. In ix. 33, 4, which is repeated in 58, 19 with var. lec., this section repeating the substance of 33 after the Tīrtha episode, a long interpolation (ch. 33-51), it is said that Duryodhana has been practicing on an iron statue of Bhīma for 13 years (this iron statue reappears in xi. 12. 15 f.). xv. 4. 15 the thirteenth year is recognized. In the earlier books, the thirteenth year is recognized, besides passages already cited, in ii. 46. 11; 74. 18 f. -76; 77. 30; 80. 34; iii. 3. 74; 8. 3; 46. 58; 49. 11; 51. 33 f.; 176. 10 f.; 252. 43; 256. 14; 261. 50; v. 61, 19; 95, 41; 160, 89; all referring either to the thirteenth year as being completed, or, what amounts to the same thing, to what will happen in the fourteenth year, after the thirteenth, e. g. ii. 77. 30 and iii. 261. 50. I think now, therefore, that the thirteenth year must be regarded as belonging to the original conception of the present poem and that the late characteristics of Virāta are due to subsequent workingover of the delectable scenes embodied in it. Possibly the original form was simply an extra year "in concealment" The time-discrepancy is of no more weight than (incognito). in the application of thirteen years to the wood-life exclusively. This curious statement, that the Pandavas lived not only in banishment but in the wood for 13 years, is found three times, once as cited above, p. 50 ad fin., again in vii. 197. 10,

vanam pravrājitāś ca sma valkalājinavāsasaḥ anarhamānās tam bhāvam trayodaśasamāḥ parāiḥ,

"we were exiled by our enemies to the woods, clothed in bark and skins, undeserving of that condition, for thirteen years;" and in xv. 11. 23, yatra trayodaśasamā vane vanyena jīvatha,

(that condition) "when for thirteen years you lived in the wood on forest products." But as the latter is easily explained as a phrase (also in the Rāmāyaṇa, see my list of parallels, Great Epic, p. 433, No. 242), and is preceded by an explicit reference to the "secret residence" in contrast to the "twelve years hate," ib. 20, so in the former case, "that condition" carries the thought over to the end of the period during which the Pandus were treated badly for thirteen years. So also the fourteenth year in the wood, logically to be extracted from the narrative as sketched above, is probably merely a poetic lapsus. Abhimanyu is killed at 16 years of age, after having been married for six months, i. 67. 117, etc.; xi. 20. 29.

In the tenth and eleventh books the data carry us forward to the end of the Pandus. Krsna is slain on the 36th year after the war; xi. 25. 44, repeated in xvi. 1. 1. During this time the Pandus defer to Dhrtarastra for 15 years, and the latter, xv. 20. 32, lives three years more. It is 16 years after the war in xv. 29. 37, at which time Draupadī is "just about touching middle age" (!), xv. 25. 9. Two years more pass, xv. 37. 1, after more than a month's visit on Dhrtarastra, māsah samadhikah, xv. 36. 11. Three of the eighteen years after the war were passed by the old king in the wood and fifteen in town. xv. 39. 25. These form explicit denials of the fact (inferred from the circumstance that Pariksit was a baby at the time of the visit) that Pariksit was crowned about sixteen years after the war, as shown by Mr. Aiyer. The epic in this regard contradicts itself and can scarcely be taken as a safe guide for its own date as far as these data are concerned, x. 16. 7; xv. 15. 10; 25. 10. Pariksit reigns 60 years, according to x. 16. 15. though in a final extravagance the epic declares that Yudhisthira's reign alone embraces "thousands of years," xv. 10. 22,

tathā varsasahasrāṇi kuntīputreṇa dhīmatā pālyamānā dhṛtimatā sukhaṁ vindāmahe nṛpa.

Altogether the epic is as fairly consistent in its dates as was to be expected of so huge a compilation. Some of the inconsistencies, however, are so decided as to admit of no reasonable doubt that the poem has been largely interpolated.

SYNTACTICAL NOTE ON THE ABLATIVE OF TIME.

It is not worth while to make a separate article out of this note, so I append it here, though scarcely in place. In the Am. Journal of Philology, xxiv, p. 1f., I have tried to show that, in epic and earlier Sanskrit, the ablative of time-words does not mean "after" but "up to" or "within" the time named, my general conclusion in respect of all the grammatical cases being that in early Sanskrit no grammatical case expresses temporal posteriority any more than it does temporal priority, though "time after" may be implied by any case (except the vocative), even by the nominative and accusative. The ablative in particular approximates to a true indication of posteriority, yet only in serial time. measured from a starting-point. This note illustrates the use of the ablative in the later literature of the Brhat Samhitā. Here is strikingly shown how such an expression as sanmāsāt regularly includes the period and does not mean "after a semester," but within it. Good examples are found in xxx, xxxii, and xlii. In xxx. 12 and 31, saptāhāt is "within a week;" in xxxii, "in four fortnights," and "in a week" are expressed by the instrumental and by saptāhāt respectively; in xlii. 7, it is said that a rise in price will take place sasthe māsi, varsārdhāt, and (sthi $tv\bar{a}$) $m\bar{a}sam$, all alike giving the limit. So in xlvi. 14, 30, 39, 53, 'time within which' is expressed by instrumental and ablative, sanmāsāt, and so elsewhere. But in this later literature, BS. lxxviii. 20, appears (as noticed in my article) an innovation in tryahāt samnivartate, in the apparent meaning "ceases after three days." BS. has ā mūrdhatah in the sense "from the head onward," lii. 10, as well as ā varsāt, "within a year," xlv. 16 (also the antam construction, ābrahmakītāntam, lxxiv. The nominative of duration, as illustrated in the article referred to above, has here a still more striking illustration: (yo 'dyāt), sāi 'kāni vinsatir (the reading of all MSS.; see Kern's note) ahāni, lxxvi. 3: (whoso eats), "days a twenty (nom.!) and one."